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The Social Studies

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VOLUME XXVIII, NUMBER 7

NOVEMBER, 1937

A "Faire Greene Country Towne" Plays Host: Philadelphia, 1787

ELINOR SHAFER BARNES

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

In May, 1787, the eyes of the thirteen states were turned on Philadelphia. All roads, however wretched, led to this city that was the hub of the new world. On horseback and in carriages, their baggage freighted by pack horse, and by packet sloop on the water, came from New England and as far down the coast as Georgia the delegates to the Constitutional Convention that was to straighten out the chaotic lack of unity in trade and general life, and consolidate the sovereign states under an effective "federal roof."

It was no more than fitting that Philadelphia had been chosen as host for the convention. Penn's "greene country town," grown to a population of some 40,000, was the largest and most important city in British America. New York, by comparison, was "a poor country town, with about twenty-three thousand people, not yet recovered from its Revolutionary wounds," and Washington on the Potomac had not been conceived. Too, Philadelphia was no mean novice in entertaining important bodies. Carpenters' Hall had housed the First Continental Congress in 1774, and the State House had been the meeting place of the great Independence Congress. In the spring of 1777 the city had again become congressional headquarters, remaining so for five years except for the winter of British occupation.

It was especially fitting that the State House, now elevated to its shrinal title of Independence Hall, should house the earnest gentlemen whose work

resulted in welding the individual states into a lasting union. Already the focus of American patriotic thought as exemplified in the Liberty Bell which had swung aloft in its tower,¹ it had besides a record of a half century of service as the capitol of the commonwealth of Pennsylvania. Harrisburg was but a puny infant of two years struggling to lift its head in the wilderness; expansion across the Alleghenies had not yet carried the political center of the state westward from the Delaware to the Susquehanna; and at the very time the Constitutional Convention was in secret session behind locked and guarded doors in the historic east room, the Pennsylvania Assembly met directly above.

Although a trifle over a century had passed since William Penn's arrival in the good ship *Welcome*, the Quaker City was in 1787 much the lusty growing youngster, a curious adolescent mixture of natural youthful vigor, pioneer simplicity, aristocratic elegance, graceful courtesy, intense interest in science and mechanics, dutiful attendance to literature and language, and minute attention to certain vanities and superficialities later mowed down ruthlessly by the stern scythe of republican austerity.

The Philadelphia that received the Constitutional delegates was vastly different from the Philadelphia of 1937. A rectangle one mile by two, it was laid out with almost checkerboard precision between the southern boundary of South Street and the northern

limit of Vine, with the suburban sections, Northern Liberties and Southwark, closely bordering. Though the city stretched two miles to front on two rivers, both business and residential sections were huddled toward the Delaware, leaving the beautiful Schuylkill region on the west largely deserted but for country seats and gardens. South Front Street, which time has abandoned to wholesale establishments and warehouses, was a part of the fashionable residential section on the hill. On South Third and South Fourth, where the westward-moving city has left a dingy residue of metropolitan industrialism, with the noisy and odoriferous pushcart and sidewalk-shop district close by, many of the "first families" lived in their elegantly façaded three-story brick houses. These residences, a few of which are still standing, were replete with fanlights, pilasters, knockers, wrought-iron bootscrapers, and iron rails which guarded the marble or stone steps rising abruptly from the sidewalks to the beautiful doorways. Backing them were lovely spacious terraced gardens that usually stretched to the next street and many times included family burial plots. Almost purely residential sections were lower Walnut, much of which has been given over to insurance buildings, and Spruce, now cluttered with small shops and crowded apartment buildings. At Second and Pine the market place, today in the midst of woefully run-down surroundings, was a "respected outpost of a fashionable neighborhood."

Independence Hall, fronting directly on Chestnut Street between Fifth and Sixth, was the center of a not too congested urban life. Unflanked as yet by the two buildings erected soon afterwards to complete State House Row,² the simple two-winged edifice stood alone in gracious dignity. Within it for five hours daily (except Sundays) from May 25 to September 17 the learned gentlemen of the convention, with Washington presiding, deliberated. An injunction of secrecy so successfully kept the sometimes stormy proceedings from the public that it was proposed to call the room where the "long and peaceable session" was held "Unanimity Hall." Though the time was "in a most fortunate period—in the midst of peace," dissension between the representatives of the large states and those of the small made the work of preparing the Constitution far from easy. It may be imagined that many a time after a gruelling session weary delegates picked their way across cobbled Chestnut Street—which was covered temporarily with loose dirt so that the convention would not be annoyed by traffic noises—to Clark's Inn, known by the sign of the Coach and Horses, there to drown the heat of discussion as well as that of the day in cooling draughts of porter and ale.

State House Yard itself was an inviting sanctuary. Its thick-grassed lawn stretched back a full square

wide to Walnut Street. It was pleasant to stroll along its broad flag-stoned paths, shaded by the full-foliaged trees that dotted the "publick greene and walke."

Out the high Walnut Street gate, the curious stroller came abruptly upon the great stone two-story two-winged Walnut Street Prison, many of the inmates of which had been cast into gaol for their debts. Could he have peeked within the high wall extending back to Prune Street (now Locust), he might have seen the wooden pump which supplied water for the prisoners' morning ablution of faces and hands and biweekly shaves. The gaol was not always a tranquil institution; occasional attempts at "massacre or escape" by criminals who had succeeded in shunting off their irons had to be quelled by armed force. Conveniently near, directly across Sixth Street, was the potters' field, Southeast Square, now known as Washington Square. Here beside the remains of paupers, strangers, and criminals, were the unmarked graves of about 2000 Revolutionary War soldiers, both American and British, and many of the exiled Acadians from Nova Scotia.

Hurrying past this gloomy and dismal site and turning west on Spruce, one came to the lovely, spacious grounds of the Pennsylvania Hospital between Eighth and Ninth and, just beyond, the city Almshouse. Out this far from the Delaware, houses were increasingly scarce and trees more plentiful. Streets were bad; south of Chestnut no pavement extended beyond Fourth. Although the city was now making "almost daily improvement" on its thoroughfares, often using convict labor, many of the streets were still impassable in wet weather, especially in the winter. Down the middle of Vine Street was a gutter or water-course which increased the hazards of travel for the market-wagons and chaises which came in from the country by way of this highroad.

At the intersection of Broad Street and High, then beginning to be called Market on account of the three-block market place down by the Delaware, was Centre Square, otherwise known as the Commons. This square, today the site of City Hall, was supposed to be equidistant from the other four great squares (now called Logan, Franklin, Washington, and Rittenhouse) blocked out in geometrical precision by the founder, and midway between the Schuylkill and the Delaware Rivers. Probably because of some topographic impediment, however, it had been set nearly 500 feet to the west of the median. Although the plot had been dedicated by Penn to be the civic and business center of the city, it was in reality remote from town. People came out here for picnics and country strolls. Here too horse races were often held. The sport was very popular, and in front of Centre House, a tavern which stood on the present site of Broad Street Station, was the race track. A few

squares from the Jockey Club headquarters was the Sassafras Street racing concourse, which soon came to be called exclusively Race Street. The "manly, useful and healthy" art of horsemanship was taught "in the ménage at Centre-House." On Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays from 4:00 until 8:00 gentlemen exercised, while ladies were "attended to" on alternate days.

Another "pleasure" offered on the Commons was an occasional public execution. The city gallows was in the middle of Broad Street just south of where City Hall now stands, and here a people to whom blue laws restricted the delights of the theater was now and again given the opportunity to witness the gruesomely dramatic spectacle of a captured pirate or a convicted murderer making his undignified last appearance on the stage of life swinging from the end of a stout rope. Of one such execution the *Pennsylvania Journal* for May 19, 1787, said that the condemned man gave "such evident signs of remorse and penitence that it is sincerely hoped his death may serve as an expiation for his iniquities, and as a warning to the idle and the profligate to correct in time the corruption of their hearts."

Still another use made of the Commons was that of parade ground. On its grassy stretch the City Lighthouse, dressed in new uniforms of "white, thin buckskin, the production and manufacture of our own country," exhibited for the edification of the spectators its "wise and virtuous purpose." General Washington, attended by various of his associates, sometimes took time off from the arduous duties of the convention to review the Lighthouse and city infantry companies. On these occasions "the desire of the populace to gaze upon their beloved General, rendered his situation in some degree, incommodious, and impaired the effect of the manoeuvres." A particularly large crowd came out to the Commons on the Fourth of July to view the evolutions followed by marching "with martial music and ringing of bells."

To venture beyond the Commons alone was somewhat dangerous. Burglaries were not confined to housebreaking and stable thefts. The increasing number of robbers and vagrants was distressing, and assaults were made even in daytime by highwaymen and footpads armed with blunderbusses and pistols. One robber, a horseman known for his decent garb of many changes and his courteous speech and demeanor, committed one of his many depredations not far from the Centre House itself, and on June 19 William Hamilton, Esquire, on his way back from town to his beautiful estate of Bush Hill located between Vine Street and Coates and Twelfth and Nineteenth, was attacked "in Market, near Twelfth-street" by a band of footpads who surrounded his carriage and fired on the postilion. The "atrocious offenders" were routed by a group of Mr. Hamilton's

servants who rode up behind and fired on them, whereupon they made their escape through a near-by cornfield.

In real country environment at Twelfth and Market were the Landreth nurseries, which, though the business had been founded only three years before, were already supplying the adjacent country seats and the city with fine trees. The early Quakers had done their best to keep Philadelphia a "greene towne" by planting buttonwoods, sycamores, maples, and oaks along the streets and sidewalks and roads. But just recently many single trees and groves had been destroyed on account of a law passed by the city corporation in 1782 ordering that all trees in the streets be cut down because they shut off air, "obstructed the prospect and passage," and were a fire and health hazard, and their roots "disturbed the water-courses and footways"; they were, moreover, "not affected to the government because they remained with the enemy" during the British occupation of Philadelphia in 1777-1778.

This unfortunate law was repealed before all the trees had been cut down, but another blow was threatening the tree life of the city. In 1781 the Philadelphia Contributionship for Insurance of Houses from Loss by Fire, otherwise known from its fire mark as the "Hand-in-Hand," had announced that it would not insure or reinsure any buildings that had trees in front of them. Three years later, however, the Mutual Assurance Company, appropriately called the "Green Tree," had been founded on the broader policy of not excepting houses with trees. On insuring a building the company placed its fire mark upon it. This mark served as identification to the volunteer fire brigades which the insurance companies helped maintain in exchange for protecting their houses. Some houses, as the fire marks still on them indicate, were insured by more than one company.

Though Market Street was somewhat north of the main part of town, down toward the Delaware River it had a good many establishments of various kinds. At Seventh Street was the brick boarding house wherein Jefferson had drafted the Declaration of Independence, and at Fifth was Mrs. House's boarding house, from which Washington was carried off by Robert Morris and his wife to stay with them in their mansion on High east of Sixth until the convention closed. Ample lodging place for the delegates who were not so fortunate as to be the house guests of hospitable residents or to live in Philadelphia was supplied by the boarding houses and the numerous inns. Of these latter the City Tavern on Second Street above Walnut was perhaps the most celebrated, but The Indian Queen, Tun Tavern, Epples', The Wigwam, and many others did a thriving business. The taverns played no little part in the

life of the city. They were the headquarters for several of the clubs that were springing up, and many projects for bettering social, educational, and economic conditions were born in a dim-lit wood-paneled dining room to the accompaniment of "ye landlord's" solicitous attendance. They supplied a meeting place for no less important an organization than the Order of Freemasons. They fed skating, sleighing, and hunting parties, and on special days took particular pains to provide adequate "entertainment" for those who would feast in public. They were the scenes of balls, concerts, and dramatic programs. In them churches, schools, city, and state held lotteries which, sanctioned by law, were an accepted method of gathering funds for worthy purposes. At the Merchants' Coffee-House were often held auctions of property "by public vendue."

The taverns usually were not large establishments. A description given in the notice for sale of the New Inn, known by the sign of the Golden Fleece, on Fourth Street mentioned "two good rooms" on the first floor, four on the second, and two garrets. The kitchen was in the cellar, which was, so the advertisement assured the prospective buyer, dry, and there was a pump in the yard. Thirty horses could be stabled.

No doubt many of the convention delegates occasionally sallied forth at the end of a day's deliberations to shop. Philadelphia had the best shopping facilities in the country, and gentlemen often came into town with lists of articles to buy for their relatives and friends. It was not uncommon for a man to purchase for ladies of his acquaintance such personal things as stays and hose, for the manufacture of which latter commodity Germantown was already famous. Molasses, dress goods, combs, yarn, bonnets, and sewing equipment, too, were frequently bought by male customers.

For funds for his immediate needs the shopper might go past the Friends' Meeting House and School and Carpenters' Hall to Tench Francis' commodious store on Chestnut above Third, which housed the one and only bank. This institution, bearing the important title of The Bank of North America, had been established only six years previously according to the plan of Robert Morris, the Revolutionary War financier. Francis White, "near the Bank," borrowed and lent money, bought and sold "all kinds of Public Securities," and supplied "country people and others" with loan-office certificates and state money; Isaac Franks, stock and exchange broker on Market near Second, discounted for cash bank stock bills, state or Continental currency, and certificates.

There were various stores in the city carrying such specific goods as books and stationery, china, liquor, lemons, lamp oil, and mackerel, and the proprietors usually advised the public by notice in one of the several newspapers of imports of such commodities

from the West Indies as Jamaica spirits, tea, coffee, pepper, and sugar, and from Liverpool, silver English watches, "ironmongery, cutlery, sadlery, pewter, brass kettles, bowling pieces, 9x7 window glass; also pillow fustians, jeanets, royal ribbs, ribb-delures, sattinets, sewing silks, durants, printed cottons, men's black and white Castor hats etc." Much of the imported goods was smuggled. Even reputable merchants thought nothing of entering only half a cargo at the custom house.

Though foreign wares were eagerly received, the city chafed at its dependence on imports, especially those which came from England. A newly organized society for the encouragement of home manufactures was making a concerted campaign for increased local industry in order to diminish imports; 853 subscribers from "all ranks and parties" contributed to a general fund and a manufacturing fund. "Until we manufacture more," said the *Pennsylvania Mercury* on August 10, 1787, "it is an absurdity to celebrate the Fourth of July as the birth-day of our independence. We are still a dependent people—actually taxed by England."

One could, however, buy Philadelphia-made paper, glass, tools, steel, chemicals, malt, leather goods, curtains, and jeans. If he was quite wealthy, he might order from Quarrier and Hunter, the city's leading carriage makers located on Filbert Street, a magnificent chaise finished in olive or black or yellow or purple or brown; or he might even have Brighthurst of Germantown build for him a "Germantown wagon" at a sum that would now buy a moderate-priced automobile. If he walked along the three-block stretch of market on lower High to Second, he might purchase linens and stockings from the Germantown venders, who, despite the fact that the cheapness of imported hose was all but ruining their business, rode horseback into the city carrying their goods in packets slung from the saddle. Mustard seed might be exchanged for the manufactured product at Joseph Few's manufactory "at the Drawbridge."

On Tuesday and Friday evenings the "Butter Bells" of Christ Church reminded the city folk of the market day on the morrow. Bright and early the next morning housewives, baskets on their arms or servants in tow, were milling about in the markets. The mistresses of the finest homes rubbed elbows with the humble *hausfrau* while selecting and bargaining for garden truck, meats, fish, cheeses, piece goods, hats, and shoes. Marketers from Germantown—mostly women—rode on horseback with their hampers. For the most part, country people sold direct to the consumers, but "pernicious" agents were beginning to act as profiteering middlemen who "regraded or forestalled" provisions, making for artificial scarcities.

Hucksters who served the poorer classes called their wares down the streets; the charcoal vender made his presence known by blowing his horn; the woodman's cry of "Wud! Wud!" marked his progress; and the soft-soap vender, the milkmen, and the sand-men all added variety to street life. Drug peddlers sold their cures to a physic-minded city, and an old herb doctor was often seen selling sassafras, wormwood, rhubarb, and sweet basil to Negroes on the street. At dusk lamplighters came out with their torches to light the oil lamps, and the city emerged from the evening gloom dimly illumined by feebly flickering ghostly rays.

Strangers in Philadelphia must have had some difficulty in finding their way about. Houses were unnumbered and streets were unmarked. "In Market-street, near the Coffee-house," "the west side of Second-street, nine doors below Race," and "near the Bank" were as specific directions as could be had. A foreigner who was pleased with Philadelphia and its inhabitants suggested that house numbers and street markers would be a great improvement, said the editor of the *Pennsylvania Mercury* on February 2, 1787, and added wistfully that the great European cities and New York and Charleston "have these conveniences, and since the expense is a mere trifle, it cannot be supposed that the metropolis of the United States would be backward to adopt the same plan."

"The metropolis of the United States" did, however, boast of a city directory. In 1785 John Macpherson, the battle-marked old sea-captain privateer who had built the house later bought by Benedict Arnold for his lovely Peggy Shippen, had laboriously stumped through the streets of the city to discover and set down the names and occupations of its residents. Those who chose to divulge the required information were identified in the book in house-to-house order; as for the rest, notes such as "Cross woman," "What you please!" and "I won't tell you!" had to suffice.

Sundays were truly "go-to-meeting" days. The townspeople turned out in full force to go to the many houses of worship, and country folk drove miles to observe the Sabbath, quartering their horses in open sheds if they did not choose to tie them at the hitching posts along the streets.

Church spires rose impressively through the green trees about them to proclaim the religious tolerance that had always been a keynote of the "city of brotherly love." Baptists, Presbyterians, Episcopalians, Catholics, Lutherans, Methodists, Jews—all had their houses of God. The many-windowed red-brick Christ Church sitting serenely among its shrubs and trees on Second Street above Market, where Washington and Franklin had their pews, had for many years been a significant institution. Washington had a pew also at dignified St. Peter's, an offshoot of Christ Church, and he occasionally went to the non-

Episcopal churches besides; on May 27 he attended foreign-looking St. Joseph's Catholic Church in Willings Alley, which enjoyed a membership of 2,000. Baptists and Presbyterians were strong too, and already the Methodists, firmly if quite newly entrenched in their St. George's, were sending out many traveling preachers as well as ordaining many local ones. St. Thomas' African Methodist Episcopal Church, the first in America owned by Negroes, was just being organized. The Jewish congregation, Mickve Israel, worshipped in the synagogue in Cherry Street near Third. Down near the Delaware on Swanson Street was quaint little Old Swedes' Church, "Gloria Dei," whose vestry had only the year before dispatched word to the King of Sweden not to send any more ministers because the Swedish language was almost extinct in Pennsylvania. The Mennonite Meeting House, the Dunkards' Church of the Brethren, and the German Reformed Church out in Germantown added to the variety.

The Friends' Meeting Houses had always been an integral part of the life of the city. The rigorous plainness of their interiors was intensified by the drab costumes affected by many of the faithful Quakers who came—on some days as many as three times—to give and listen to testimonies, the women sitting on one side of the room and the men on the other.

The social divisions set up by religious denominations were breaking down. Ann Warder, a Quakeress, noted in her diary a testimony "against the practice of young Folks intermixing so much with the world in formal visiting which lead from the plainness & symplicity our Forefathers purchas'd with (almost) there Lives." Though good Friends were prohibited from indulging in gayety in the form of dancing and cards and made a point of withdrawing whenever these diversions were introduced, diaries of the time bear evidence of many informal dinner and supper groups and harmless gossip over innumerable dishes of tea.

Philadelphia in 1787 was indeed a social-minded city. Though protests against English domination in fashion and thought as well as trade were loud, Tory standards of aristocratic elegance persisted. During the British occupation of Philadelphia, while Washington and his ragged troops wintered in Valley Forge, General Howe and his dashing redcoats had superimposed on the decorous colonial society a breath-taking pageant of courtly gayety, entertaining the loyalist ladies—and no doubt many fun-loving staunch rebels too—royally in the literal sense of the word. Departure of the riotous leaders of revelry had not erased from the minds of their erstwhile hosts thoughts of balls and costumes and exhibitions. Admiration of things French added to the emphasis of fashionable life. In spite of the facts that republican simplicity was beginning vigorously to assert

itself and thoughtful critics were condemning the current extravagance and frivolity, a strong element of the city clung to its showing of English luxury in society and dress, paying scant attention to the many exhortations that appeared in the papers on the fatal consequences of luxury and the need for frugality if the country was to survive. Philadelphians who wished to be fashionable—and these were not only in the class who could afford to pay the current exorbitant prices for finery—insisted on imported "wrought silks, muslins, gauzes, and cambricks."

Though the shelves of the shops were laden with rich and expensive materials, there was no ready-made clothing to be had for women. Neither were there any fashion plates or fashion magazines. Mantuamakers—enthusiastically welcomed dressmakers who came chiefly from Ireland, carrying with them their fully dressed "fashion babies" from London—made their serene and profitable way from customer to customer, creating individual wardrobes at each house. A wedding meant months of planning and sewing, even the Quaker brides wearing gay-colored and modish dresses; and an ordinary season's wardrobe was no light matter. For such unpremeditated events as funerals, at which girls (sometimes wearing long white veils but never hats) acted as pallbearers, clothing was often borrowed. Fashion dolls whose usefulness as demonstrators of the latest styles from abroad was ended by fickle fashion's changes were sold by the mantuamakers to their customers, and great was the delight of the little girl whose mother bought for her one of these prized playthings.

The foundations on which costumes were built were tightly laced whalebone stays. Every female, even infants, wore these uncompromising props; indeed, children's fashions were closely patterned after those of their parents. A goodly variety of dress was achieved. The stiff brocades and rustling taffetas and striped silks and dainty dimities lent themselves well to effective treatment. Hoops and panniers were definitely "going out," and in their places the bustle was used to hold out the full skirt that was gathered, sometimes under a wide sash, on to the fairly short low-cut bodice. On simpler dresses the bustle was omitted, but the skirts were always full-gathered. Gowns swept the floor, though sometimes they were just short enough to display stylish French-heeled pointed-toed slippers of brocade and a glimpse of embroidered silk hose above.

Very popular were satin petticoats, to reveal which the skirt of the extremely fashionable polonaise—an overskirt and waist in one piece—flared open in front, draping back gracefully to the bustle. Sleeves were either long and tight or short and full, in the latter case edged with ruffles. Even demure Quakeresses, whose styles were modifications of current fashions, wore low-necked short-sleeved gowns,

though they modestly added dainty white kerchiefs of lace or muslin to protect the neck. Sometimes instead of being chastely folded across the bosom as a fichu with the ends pinned securely at the waist, the gauze or linen kerchief, now assuming the appropriate name of "buffont," was fluffed out to give an "exaggerated bosom." Soft silk shawls or else long scarfs called tippets were often thrown about the shoulders. In hot weather a dressing-saque or "short gown" made of cotton or linen was used for comfort, and the "greatcoat" was another cotton garment usually for morning wear. Guests of Isaac Norris at Fairhill were supplied "soft warm gowns of green baize" to wear for fireside gossip.

Indispensable to every woman as repository for such things as a folding pocket mirror, a hand-warmer, and perhaps a "strong-waters-bottle" were pockets. They were worn hanging, usually one on either side, among the voluminous folds of the dress. Sometimes they were attached under the skirt, which was slit for ready access. Often the handiwork of some gift-giving relative or friend, they were made of any of several materials; some were plain, while others were painstakingly embroidered. Fans and handkerchiefs were carried. Few jewels were used, but bracelets were considered the height of elegance, particularly if they were set with locks of hair or miniatures. Charles Willson Peale, noted artist of the time, set miniatures in bracelets for several of the prominent dames. Large watches, frequently accompanied by winding-keys, were sometimes worn on long cords slung about the neck.

On the street, cloaks often bright in hue were worn. Scarlet was a fashionable color. Gloves and bonnets and parasols were necessary adjuncts, and cold weather brought out small round muffs and warm tippets. Riding costume—a new style—consisted of a long close-fitting full-skirted tailored coat, equipped with a "safeguard" for horseback riding; lapels and large buttons, as well as ruffled lace frills at the neck, were borrowed from masculine costume. Less appropriate than the rest of the outfit was the large broadbrimmed hat, which was fastened to the coiffure with long black wire double pins.

Styles in hairdressing were elaborate. Woman's crowning glory was augmented by "borrowed hair," yarn, cotton, or even straw stuffing. Stiffened with pomatum and frizzed or "craped" in front, it was "built up" sometimes as much as a foot high. Powdered tresses were beginning to lose in popularity. Intricate curls and rolls achieved by patient application of curl papers and hot irons, often at the hands of a professional artisan, were left undisturbed as long as possible. Those whose hair was too scanty to cover rolls of stuffing resorted to wearing wigs. Atop the immense fabrication was often perched a wire skeleton covered with gauze which hung in

streamers down the back, and further decoration was supplied by large combs, artificial flowers, and brilliants. Hats of straw, beaver, or felt, lavishly trimmed with feathers or ribbon, were often worn even while dining or dancing; huge plumes weighted down already topheavy heads.

Gentlemen too went to a good bit of trouble to keep their locks according to fashion's dictates. On Sunday mornings the barbers' porches were full of men discussing events and the weather while waiting their turns to have their hair "frizzled, powdered, and cued." The hair was worn long enough to be "pigtailed" and tied in back. As with the ladies, white powder in the hair was "going out," but the popular bag-wig often covered natural color as well as deficiency in amount. On week mornings "master barbers, journeymen, and apprentices could be seen scudding along the streets . . . with their bag and curling irons," reminisced an old-time contributor in *Poulson's Advertiser* for March 8, 1828, "and in warm weather under 'bare polls'—to attend gentlemen before time of business."

Masculine dress, too, was of great interest. Cocked hats, fantail coats, long embroidered silk waistcoats, frothy white neck and wrist ruffles, tight velvet or buckskin knee breeches caught at the knee with silver or perhaps pewter buckles, silk stockings, and low shoes with buckles to match those at the knee added to the attractiveness of the male of the species. Hickory canes and walking sticks were popular, and on state occasions swords were worn. Every gentleman had—and used—his snuffbox. The bulky currency of the day was carried in large leather wallets. Braided hair chains were often used for the thick "bull's-eye" watches.

"Young bucks" often discarded conservative blacks and snuffs for gayer greens, purples, and blues, and elaborately clocked white silk hose setting off the "well-turned leg" disclosed by the fashionable flowing short cloak were very elegant. Only country people and old men wore boots. Quaker men used plain cuts and fabrics and quiet colors; their hose were frequently of worsted instead of silk and matched the dull color of their breeches; strings took the place of metal buckles in kneeband and shoe; and their hats were broadbrimmed and plain.

The true republicans, too, showed a definite trend toward simplicity. They usually wore worsteds and camblets in place of finer materials, and their clothing was mostly homemade. They seem to have regarded the subject of buttons with particular concern; there was a determined movement to abandon the use of expensive imported English octagonal, balloon, frying-pan, and sugar-loaf metal buttons. Many patriots refused to wear "such trumpery" and "gewgaws" as foreign fashion dictated.

People who had made fortunes in the West Indies

or were enjoying the fruits of profitable war-time speculation could afford expensive social life. Entertaining was done on a grand scale, hosts striving to outdo one another in elegance. The members of the convention were fêted with gusto through the hot summer months. Washington was particularly in demand; almost every day he went out to dinner or tea or both. At the Bingham's luxurious house on Third Street, where a long row of liveried servants announced guests in English fashion, the General and his colleagues often dined and drank tea and danced "in great splendor." Spacious Powel Mansion, the home of Mayor Samuel Powel, was also the scene of many a formal dinner, tea party, and dancing session. Stamper House on Pine was an aristocratic establishment, and Morris Mansion, where Washington was stopping, dispensed "profuse, incessant and elegant hospitality." Wealthy merchants entertained lavishly in their splendidly furnished town houses on Second Street and thereabouts, drawing freely on their extensive rum and wine cellars. Costly tapestries, massive mirrors, rich and colorful brocaded upholstery, and mellow candlelight emanating from beautiful hand-wrought silver candelabra added glamour to the gracefully formal drawing and dining rooms which were the settings for gracefully formal social occasions.

Not all hospitality, however, entailed lavish display. In Franklin Square, not far from State House, no less important a personage than Benjamin Franklin, president of the Executive Council of the sovereign state of Pennsylvania and instigator and patron of all manner of forward-looking projects, lived in his simple square three-story house. Though some considered it "unfashionable" to visit the aging but still active savant, many members of the Constitutional Convention found their way to his garden. Here with other guests, both ladies and gentlemen, they clustered around the democratic philosopher and took tea served by his daughter, Mrs. Bache. Conversation at these informal gatherings was bound to be varied as to subject and stimulating as to content. No doubt the famous punch keg which was rolled about carrying its ample hospitality to each guest was much in evidence.

But there must have been many days during that historic summer of 1787 when the delegates were glad to escape the oppressive heat of the city by riding out to one or another of the many beautiful country seats near by. Country gentlemen and owners of summer homes entertained with as much éclat as Philadelphia boasted. On July 8, Washington rode out to Stenton plantation, a few miles north of Centre Square, to dine with Dr. George Logan and wander through his stables and lovely flower gardens.

Many a delegate must have often stirred the dust of the Germantown trail as he rode out to the summer

homes of the Morrises, the Chews, the Wisters, and other important Philadelphians. The crooked, rocky road, though it was lined with beautiful weeping willows and cedars and brilliant-hued flowers, probably deserved its reputation as the worst highway in America. Germantown was an industrious little German-speaking borough strung out interminably along its Main Street. Many private homes and taverns were set so close to the lane of traffic that the double Dutch doors—constructed in an earlier day so that the top half could be opened for ventilation while the bottom remained a barrier against the animals which roamed about—could be reached by a single step from the street.

Particularly pleasing were invitations to the Woodlands, six-hundred-acre country seat of William Hamilton, grandson of the builder of Independence Hall. In the beautiful Doric mansion across the Schuylkill luxury, refinement, and ease were keynotes of life. Chairs and sofas made inviting the large pillared piazza, from which visitors could survey the pleasant green lawn. The grounds were planted with a great variety of trees and shrubs, and there were said to be at least ten thousand plants in the greenhouses and hothouses.

Indeed, interest in horticulture was widespread. Even the humblest houses had their flower plots, and all the estates both within the city and without had extensive flower gardens and numerous trees and shrubs. Many landowners gathered rare plants, sometimes importing them from Norway, Japan, and England. In John Bartram's famous garden at Gray's Ferry on the Schuylkill, where botany classes often came from the University of Pennsylvania to study, was to be found probably the most important collection of indigenous trees in the country. Here Washington and Franklin were frequent appreciative visitors. Far more formal than Bartram's celebrated garden were the eighty acres of Penn's Springettsbury which Robert Morris had planted with rare shrubs, fruit trees, and wild flowers.

On several of the large country seats extensive farming experiments were carried on. Like a good many others, Judge Peters, famous wit and host who often entertained Washington and many of his colleagues at Belmont, tried out new agricultural methods. Thoughtful men realized that on the tillage of the soil rested much of the success of the new nation, and progressive farming was conscientiously encouraged. The Philadelphia Society for Promoting Agriculture frequently published articles to help farmers.

Wheat was an important crop, and despite the inroads of the Hessian fly and other insects the harvest in Pennsylvania was reported in July to be "uncommonly plentiful." The amount raised was double that of the previous year, and the grain was large and

heavy, with "no deficiency of straw." Honor for the bountiful harvest was divided between "the benignant effects of the late rains" and the new system of preserving the vitality of the soil by land plastering and clover cropping. Hemp, potatoes, Indian corn, and carrots, too, received careful attention, and mustard was a "common native of our soil and very good."

Family life in the average home was centered about the fireplace, which, though the Franklin stove was warming many parlors, still drew cozy groups together until warm weather lured them out into the gardens. The women of the family busied themselves with their knitting, mending, and sewing. The younger girls struggled with pockets that they were "working" and samplers on which they laboriously cross-stitched colorful alphabets and sententious mottoes. Much of the education was carried on in the home. The family Bible and concerted prayer kept the group together in religious unity. Newspapers and perhaps the latest copy of *The American Museum* or a book rented from the library gave mental stimulus. A much-read volume was the *Poor Richard Improved Almanack*, which contained in its scant pages weather forecasts, advice on health and happiness, astrological divisions, historical anecdotes, comments on women and their virtues, and verse couplets, most of which had to do with the advantages of frugality, temperance, and other good qualities.

A lady caller meant the hasty brewing of a pot of tea and over the dishes excited gossip and clothes talk; a male visitor would join the head of the house in a mug of ale or punch or perhaps a drink of rum, and between long satisfying draughts from their pipes the men would no doubt discuss moral virtues, the way to get rich, the "wretched oppression" of the Irish, the increased cost of living, the future of the United States, and the hope that the federal convention meeting at the State House would succeed in rectifying the confusion in life and trade.

People of moderate means ate and drank a great deal, and at the wealthier homes the luxury of the well-appointed and impeccably served table often must have taxed the digestive apparatus of the diners. A famous guest described a dinner at Powel Mansion as "a most sinful feast again! Everything which could delight the eye or allure the taste; curds and creams, jellies, sweetmeats of various sorts, twenty sorts of tarts, fools, trifles, floating islands, whipped sillibub, &c., &c., Parmesan cheese, punch, wine, porter, beer, etc." Small wonder that gout and "belly-ach" were frequent maladies!

Tavern keepers did their part in preserving hospitality in a land of plenty by loading their boards with hearty fare. Often festive groups rode out to some inn to spend hours and sometimes a whole day dining, dancing, and singing. The Pastorius house on

Germantown Avenue was famous as a resort for such parties.

There were, too, several social clubs which prided themselves on the quality of their "entertainment." Outstanding was the "State in Schuylkill," founded in 1732 by lovers of fish and fishing. This organization had its "castle" on the west bank of the Schuylkill, and here the members dined and wined celebrated visitors as well as delved into the mysteries of correct and imaginative fish cookery. Shad and sturgeon, plentiful in the near-by waters, were well liked, as was the combination of catfish and waffles.

Skating, boating, and fox-hunting clubs also had distinguished and enthusiastic membership. The height of exclusiveness, however, was achieved by the Dancing Assembly, an organization so uncomplacably aristocratic that no mechanic's or tradesman's wife or daughter was allowed on its lists. Among the many vivacious and lovely belles Anne Willing, later Mrs. William Bingham, is said to have been the most beautiful and charming. Though Friends in general disapproved of the festivities, there were some Quaker members. During the dancing season the Assembly was held weekly; those who did not care to indulge in the lively cotillion and reel, in the arrangement of sets for which the ladies drew for places, retired to play cards by comfortable fireplaces in candlelit rooms provided for the purpose.

Dancing was an important social grace, and young ladies and gentlemen spent many hours perfecting their technique. Dancing masters—one opened his establishment "at the new Dancing Hall in Church-alley"—conducted schools where they taught children and young ladies by day and "grown gentlemen" by night. Members of itinerant stock companies introduced the popular "pigeon wing" and other steps.

Singing was another social accomplishment, and music teachers instructed ladies and gentlemen in playing on such instruments as the harpsichord and the violin. A Mr. Capron guaranteed perfect results on the Spanish and English guitar with two lessons a week for six months. At Third and Market a musical organization called the Uranian Society met to encourage and improve church music, and various churches gave concerts to raise money for the Pennsylvania Hospital, the Dispensary, and the general relief of the poor. The flute, piano, violoncello, and violin were featured in numerous concerts given at the City Tavern on Second Street.

Musical programs, indeed, threw a protective cloak over many a theatrical performance. The Philadelphia stage was under a ban, but ingenious producers found ways to sidestep both legal restriction and sectarian disapproval. Plays were called "tales" or "moral dialogues," and were sandwiched in between parts of vocal and instrumental concerts which, because

they were allowed by law and church, were advertised as the main part of the performances. Thus *The Gamester* was "a serious and moral lecture in five parts on the vice of gaming"; *The Tempest* was an "Opera"; and *Hamlet* was "a moral and instructive tale, called Filial Piety Exemplified in the History of the Prince of Denmark." Pantomimes, puppet shows, scenic illusions, dancing, singing, and fencing were all included in "Vaud-ville," sometimes advertised as "elegant."

To heighten drama's disguise the name "Opera House" was given to crude Southwark Theatre at South and Leithgow, where these "lectures" were given. This playhouse, the only one in the city or its environs, was "an ugly, ill-contrived affair outside and inside, the stage lighted by plain oil lamps without glasses," but the managers of the American Company before their opening night on June 23 fitted it up "neatly and elegantly," ventilating it so that it became, declared the editor of the *Pennsylvania Journal*, the coolest building in Philadelphia. No doubt the patrons appreciated not being "overheated," as they had expected to be; the necessity of constantly craning their necks to see around the large clumsy square wooden pillars that obstructed their view must have given quite enough discomfort. The best seats in the house were on the front bench in the gallery, though the boxes, to keep which ladies and gentlemen were requested to send servants beforehand, were twice as expensive. Box seats cost 7s. 6d.; pit, 5s.; and gallery, 3s. 9d. The doors were opened at 6:30, and the "concert" was begun "precisely at 7:30."

Theatrical entertainment was offered also in various taverns and in the streets, where itinerant dancing, singing, and acting "artists" performed singly or in small companies. Three times a week in the spring, "at the Long Room in Church Alley," John Brenon from Dublin entertained those who would pay fifty cents to see him dance on the slack wire and execute "feats of the dexterity of the hand." The versatile Mr. Brenon also cured toothache "without drawing, no cure no pay. For the poor—gratis."

Local talent, too, sometimes took advantage of the open market for amusement. At South and Front Streets John Durang, whose dancing performances on the boards of the Southwark often delighted his fellow Philadelphians, conducted for the pleasure of large crowds at 3s. 9d. a head a puppet show representing *The Poor Soldier*. The program was augmented by "transparent scenes and shades," songs, hornpipe dances, and "pantomimical" harlequinades.

Theatricals were well attended. "Many of the youth," it was remarked in a Quaker meeting, had "unwisely fallen into the Temptation of attending the Players now acting in this City." The usually poor but generous and resourceful actors tried to forestall

criticism by giving occasional benefit performances. The opening night "concert" of the American Company was advertised to be "for the Relief of our Fellow-Citizens Enslaved at Algiers," and the charities of the city were frequently made the recipients of proceed percentages. As a result, while many lovers of the stage openly protested against the disapproval of the theater by church and state, many of the pious tried to believe that they subscribed to the benefits "for humanity's sake." Washington himself was very fond of the theater, and was often found in a box at the Opera House with friends and colleagues.

General interest in pictorial art too was developing. Charles Willson Peale, who had studied coach-making, silversmithing, saddlery, wax-modeling, and taxidermy, and had been in London an art pupil of Philadelphia's Benjamin West, greatest historical painter of the period, did much to stimulate appreciation. At his home at Third and Lombard he began his collection of paintings which was the nucleus of his famous museum, eventually the basis of the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, oldest institution of its kind in America. Many illustrious persons sat for him, and a "metzotinto" print of Washington was completed by the close of the convention. Likenesses of Franklin and Lafayette had already been published. Peale arranged also for exhibits of foreign art collections. Private galleries were kept at some of the mansions; connoisseurs and fashion leaders who dined in the oval dining room at the Woodlands, for instance, might stroll afterwards through the spacious library and smaller art rooms to look at Italian, Dutch, and Flemish masterpieces and family portraits painted by English and American artists. It was quite fashionable to have one's portrait done—photography was still a thing of the future—and there was a lively demand besides for miniatures to be set in bracelets and locket. Artists were apt to be exceedingly versatile. At least one advertised that he "was prepared to paint in general," and it was not uncommon for an artist to make jewelry and hairpins.

Reading facilities were decidedly limited. The great library system of today was in its infancy. In one large room and "another handsome apartment" on the second floor of Carpenters' Hall, The Library Company of Philadelphia, "the mother of all American libraries," which had originated in 1731 from Franklin's famous Junto, had about six thousand volumes, inclosed with wire lattices. Here the public might browse afternoons between the hours of 2:00 and 7:00, and for a small charge borrow books to take home. The University of Pennsylvania owned a small collection, as did also the Pennsylvania Hospital. Private libraries were enjoyed by people wealthy enough to acquire them. Sometimes these were do-

nated for public benefit; the Loganian Library, which was open for free use on Saturday afternoons, had been founded in 1751 on James Logan's private collection, said to have been the finest in the colonies.

There were in town several printers and booksellers who supplied books and pamphlets, the latter usually of political, religious, or economic nature. Cautious publishers took subscriptions before putting out geographies, grammars, and collections of essays and poems. Most of the books came from England. *Pilgrim's Progress*, *Robinson Crusoe*, and *Gulliver's Travels* were popular, and Shakespeare, Dryden, and Pope were much admired. Robert Burns' first volume of poems, recently published, had some circulation; Cowper's *The Task* was well received. American printers were just beginning to bring out reprint editions of books previously obtainable only in England. For children there were *Mother Goose's Melodies* and *Goody Two Shoes*.

Excepting for notable political works American literary tradition was still raw and unformed. The epic, in which the American nationalist theme was prominent, was popular. Such patriotic works as John Trumbull's *McFingal* and Joel Barlow's *The Vision of Columbus* took up many pages in the current periodicals, and verse writers were much concerned with the future happiness of America and used a great deal of space eulogizing Washington, Franklin, Hancock, Adams, and other leaders. Avarice, the way to get rich, and the proper use of riches when acquired were a favorite topic in both prose articles and the couplet into which most of the current poetic thought was cast. Light and humorous flights on such subjects as "On a Lady's Birthday," "Receipt to Make Love," and "On a Segar" vied with more serious treatment of everyday topics. Many elegies were written for dead friends and relatives, and the moral virtues received a great deal of emphasis. Philip Freneau, whose *Katydid* is among the few American poems of the time which have survived, used nature and the Indian as subjects for much of his verse.

The newspapers supplied an outlet for the many verse makers. There were several from which to choose, and, said a current commentator, scarcely anything else was read. Because of slow and uncertain communication news was usually weeks old before it was published. "Foreign intelligence" took over two months to cross the waters, and American dispatches from the settled region along the coast reached the eyes of the readers at least a week late. Detailed descriptions of pirates, at large or captured, were thrilling, and word of ship arrivals was eagerly received. Travelers often supplied accounts of difficulties with Indians in the western wilderness. Local advertisements advised the readers of coming sheriff's sales, recent imports, new publications, proposals of

various educative projects, and offers of rewards for apprehension and return of runaway slaves and apprentices and stolen horses. Letters airing personal grievances sometimes occupied a part of a column.

But the newspapers did more than carry news and advertisements. "They are the hobby-horse of the day, and through them all the learning of ancient and modern times is conveyed to the public," remarked a French traveler at the time. "Poets, projectors, philosophers, mathematicians and statesmen all propagate their literary offspring through this channel." Probably the most important use was the patriotic. John Adams' *Defence of the Constitutions of Government of the United States* was published serially in the *Pennsylvania Mercury*, crowding off the first page lengthy and exhaustive discussions of the Irish question and E. Rack's essays on such subjects as "On the Ridiculousness of Avaricious Characters."

Another effective medium of "political, agricultural, philosophical, and other valuable information" was *The American Museum*, a monthly periodical published by Matthew Carey in Philadelphia. Of this publication George Washington wrote that "a more useful literary plan has never been undertaken in America, or one more deserving of public encouragement." Besides essays on commerce, manufacture, agriculture, and politics, it contained historical and biographical sketches, medical and other scientific articles, "moral tales," and poetry.

Many of the articles were no doubt contributed by members of the American Philosophical Society. The oldest institution in America devoted to science and learning, this organization, which was building its new brick home in State House Yard, investigated and disseminated knowledge relating to widely divergent topics; its "spirit of inquiry" penetrated into history, government, philanthropy, religion, and education as well as purely scientific subjects. Before its members John Fitch exhibited the model of his paddle-wheel steamboat, and on August 22, 1787, the delegates to the Constitutional Convention, eighteen of whom belonged to the society, watched his forty-five-foot boat, which later made regular trips, steam up the Delaware.

Political interest ran high in these formative years. The newly established Society for Political Enquiries, of which Franklin was president, had fifty residing members who, excepting during hot weather, met "every Friday fortnight" at 6:30 to further freedom "from foreign prejudice as well as foreign power." Interested in politics too were the patriots who had exchanged their plows for swords in the service of their revolting country and, independence achieved, banded together under the name of the Cincinnati, with George Washington as their president-general.

Public education in 1787 was by no means systematized. There were a few small schools which had

been started by groups of individuals. These and the sectarian schools and academies did what they could to educate "the humble and indigent classes," but they did not have facilities adequate to take care of all the poor. Their establishments were limited by private contributions and endowments, and they usually had all they could do to look after their own people. "Six hundred neglected children of the poor" were growing up in the city and its liberties without being taught how to read or write, said the editor of the *Pennsylvania Mercury*, adding that for the want of schooling that could be given to them by levying small additional property and tavern license taxes and dog taxes, the children "polluting the streets with profane and indecent language" would grow up to be "useless or pernicious members of society."

There were no vocational schools; young men learned their life work by apprenticing themselves to established tradesmen. Young gentlemen whose parents' means permitted them to attend academies studied Greek and Latin, mathematics, and English grammar and composition³; they were required besides to read "both prose and verse with propriety and elegance," every day delving into the works of "some approved historian, essayist or Poet." Religion and morality too were "promoted," students being obliged to attend public worship regularly.

Courses of public lectures were frequently given, sometimes at the University and sometimes in a public hall. Subscriptions were solicited by advertisement. One dollar admitted a person to three literary discourses including "such selections from Milton, Shakespear, Thomson, Pope, Young and Shenstone as have a tendency to improve the heart and enlarge the understanding." Assurance was given that the audiences were generally composed of gentlemen of the learned professions and "ladies of the most elevated rank and fortune." Enjoyment—by subscription of six dollars per quarter—of the beauties of the Latin classics was urged also. Lectures on language, eloquence, and poetry were given expressly for the cultivation of young ladies.

Feminism was no part of the Philadelphia of 1787. Except for an occasional shopkeeper or tavern mistress, woman's place was definitely in the home. Girls were disciplined and educated for the career of wifehood. The early marriage age made the schooling period very short, and therefore much of the current refinement must have been exceedingly superficial. If we are to credit Dr. Benjamin Rush's *Thoughts upon Female Education*, an address made before visitors of the Young Ladies' Academy, Philadelphia, on July 28, 1787, the well-turned-out female was expected to read, speak, spell, and write correctly so as not to betray vulgarity in training, know enough of figures and bookkeeping to be able to assist her

husband, and have enough of a smattering of history, biography, travels, poetry, and moral essays to be able to converse with her husband and the world. In addition she must be well enough grounded in religion to hold her family to God; she must be trained vocally so as to be able to participate in public worship and "soothe the cares of domestic life"; she must be able to dance gracefully; she must be equipped to manage her servants and their families, dealing justly and wisely with what Samuel Breck, traveler and diarist, called their provoking "folly, turpitude, ingratitude and idleness"; she must be "steward of her husband's property"; and she must be able to teach her sons the principles of liberty and government, and her daughters the necessary arts of sweet domesticity.

Not the least of the good wife's cares was nursing her family through illnesses. Infant and youth mortality was high, and many vaguely diagnosed maladies required constant attention. Medical knowledge was scant. The School of Medicine of the University of Pennsylvania was very young, and only that year—1787—was established the College of Physicians "to advance the science of medicine, and thereby to lessen human misery" by investigation, observation, and comparison.

Philadelphia of 1787, though the geographic center of the federation, was isolated by difficulty of transportation and slowness of communication. To the east the great Atlantic was a formidable space and time barrier; Liverpool was at least twenty-six days away, and one schooner took fifty-three days to come from Lisbon while another made the trip from far-away Canton in eighteen weeks. To the north and south of Philadelphia were cities and towns just as detached as herself; New York was two days away, and Boston a week. Eastern mails came in four times a week and southern only twice, with corresponding return mails posted. To the west was a region of sparsely settled farm and mining country and then a great wilderness which, though partially conquered, was still vast and frightening.

The Delaware, the Schuylkill, and the Susquehanna, not yet spanned by bridges, were expensively crossed by ferry. Farmers drove to town in Conestoga wagons, but the only means of long-distance land transportation was the pack horse, which over rocky steep roads traveled scarcely more than fifteen miles a day. Water transportation when available was somewhat easier, but because there were no canals to facilitate it, sloops could be used only when there was natural water connection. Travelers frequently used a combination of land and water routes; for example, New York was reached by taking a packet sloop to Bordentown, land vehicle to Perth Amboy, and another packet to New York. The tide regulated

times for sailing, and travel was at best slow and tedious.

A few short stage lines were private enterprises. One man advertised that each Wednesday and Saturday morning at seven o'clock his "light wagon" would leave his home in Germantown for Philadelphia, starting back from the Widow Rafor's tavern at Second and Race at five in the evening. Horseback travel was beginning to give way to carriages. The chaise took milady to worship, to air, and to visit, and was often pressed into service for longer drives. A trip to the shore, where "ye bath" was enjoyed daily, was an arduous excursion. Stumps and ruts in the miserable roads often caused horses to be lamed and carriages to be overturned.

Such was the city that entertained in 1787 the "chosen band of patriots and heroes" meeting "to arrest the progress of American anarchy." This year—1937—Philadelphia has again been playing host. In commemoration of her hospitality to those men who 150 years ago launched a new nation upon the experimental seas of trinitarian government, she has invited the same nation—now enlarged and seasoned to an extent that would doubtless amaze the founders—to celebrate with her. Just as that nation has changed, so has the city. The patriots who came here would not today recognize the metropolis that has grown up from that little country town. They would no doubt be dumfounded by its size, its speed, and its roar. They would probably be bewildered by our trains, trolleys, automobiles, and airplanes, our movies, our telephones and telegraph, our electrical appliances, our thousand and one gadgets which facilitate and at the same time complicate our daily life. They would be delighted with our plumbing, our convenient water supply, our modern lighting and heating systems. They would be intrigued with our many schools, hospitals, libraries, theaters, and stores. And they would be gratified that in the midst of conditions vastly different from those of their day the work of their minds still stands as the nucleus of our good, great government.

¹ In 1777 Liberty Bell and Christ Church chimes were taken down and hidden in a church in Allentown, Pennsylvania. After the war they were brought back; but in order to preserve the famous bell which had tolled out the proclamation of American independence, it was replaced by a larger bell. Later, however, it was re-instated in its tower, and rung only on special occasions. Cracked in 1835 when knelling the news of Chief Justice Marshall's death, it was taken down permanently, and was eventually given its present prominent place within the shrine.

² The County Building at Sixth and Chestnut, better known as Congress Hall because Congress occupied it when Philadelphia was the capital of the nation 1790-1800, was completed in 1789; the City Building at Fifth and Chestnut, in which the Supreme Court deliberated, was completed in 1791.

³ The master of English at the Protestant Episcopal Academy was Noah Webster, author of the *Grammatical Institute of English Language*.

Teaching English History

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The course in English history was introduced into the Greensburg High School in 1908. According to the superintendent of schools, the publishers of history textbooks at that time made a determined drive for the adoption of English history by the schools. It came, also, I believe, as a result of a need for additional courses in history to satisfy college entrance requirements. The classes in English history grew in popularity and size that they soon outnumbered those of United States history. For that reason we have taught it continually in our high school until the present time. It has been my pleasure to teach this subject for the last six years.

This school year there are two classes, or seventy-five seniors, who have elected to take the course. Last year there were four classes. However, this cannot be taken as an indication of its decline in popularity among the students, for the enrollment was limited by the school authorities. It is an elective course for seniors who desire an extra credit for graduation or for college entrance.

It has been suggested that the swing away from the cultural to a so-called practical curriculum may have taken place in most schools about the time of the World War. I believe that we are now on our way back to the cultural, and English history, therefore, will again in the near future find its place among the required subjects as well as among the electives.

The methods of teaching history—or any subject for that matter—must be different in the high school than in college. My methods of presenting this subject have developed out of a certain amount of experience and an attempt to understand what students desire in such a course. Certainly, I have rejected the rigid formalized system of text and rote in favor of procedures upon which I shall enlarge.

Keeping in mind that the students have elected to take this subject, I take for granted that they have some interest in, and an appreciation of history. Many who select this course have already realized its value as a background for college work, especially in continuing their study in fields such as literature and law.

Let me try to show how I link this subject with their other courses. All the members of my class,

many of whom are of more than average intelligence, are in their senior year and, therefore, have had a fair amount of study in the literary field. During their senior year they are taking an intensive course in English literature and thus English history provides a valuable background. I need not discuss the fact that to understand literature and the writings of great authors, we must study not only their own individual lives and backgrounds, but we must study also the conditions and the history of their times. For example we survey the condition of the people at the time of Beowulf and endeavor to understand why this first great piece of English literature was the outgrowth of the minds, lives, superstitions, religions, hates, and desires of the people. To use another example: can the students understand the writings of Shakespeare without knowing court life, the requirements for entertainment by the Queen, and the rather superficial existence of the upper classes of Shakespeare's time? I attempt to point out to the students how the Tudor love of pageantry helped to bring about the type of plays that were written, many of which were concerned with the court life of the times, and designed to amuse and entertain the nobles and ladies who were the most important spectators. I link palace life and the life of lesser classes, including habits and dress, with the literature of the times. Again I try to show the students how religious questions in England influenced the writing of morality and miracle plays. Another instance: we study coffee houses, descriptions of them, the landlords, and the types of discussions carried on there. Thus, we learn to know Addison and Steele and the others who frequented the coffee houses. I cannot definitely judge the extent to which the study of literature serves as a background for history or how greatly history provides a background for literature, but I am very sure that they go hand in hand in deepening the understanding and in extending the appreciation of both.

In my classes I try to show from time to time the very close connection between English law and government and our own Constitution. As a teacher of classes also in American history, I realize more each year, how our system of laws and government have come from the struggles for certain liberties and how

through the trial and error methods of the people of our mother country we have today one of the most interesting constitutions in history. In their junior year, my students spend several months studying the United States Constitution. A year later they study the Magna Carta, the Petition of Rights and the Bill of Rights, thus obtaining an understanding of our English ancestors' struggle to gain constitutional rule. In reading the originals of these great documents we are often surprised to find many of the words of our own Constitution. It is interesting to know how the Earl of Strafford suffered by a bill of attainder and why the framers of our Constitution included a prevention of its use. We learn of the famous Habeas Corpus Act of 1679 and realize its importance today.

The students discover that a great part of our constitutional law has its roots in English law; for instance, freedom of speech, the growth of the jury system, and the development of the idea of guilt of the prisoner. In this study we come to understand our own government and country to a much greater extent. Therefore, in class discussions, I try to bring out the close connection of England with America in law and government, not for the few in the class who might want to study law later on, but for all who will ultimately become average American citizens.

A little time is spent in an attempt to erase from the minds of the students some of their prejudices about English people and England. Too many of our modern textbooks do not try to break down the propaganda that our school children have been bred on for generations. I attempt to give them the English viewpoint of the American Revolution: that it was a misunderstanding over the question of representation which caused such apparent obstinacy to all proposals emanating from the colonies. Even this viewpoint, by no means unique, appears to them as an entirely new idea, for from the first grade they have been taught that to be patriotic one must believe that Americans are always right and that they, being a chosen race, never make mistakes. I feel that any favorable propaganda toward an appreciation and understanding of the mother country will do more in the future for world peace than any other one thing. If we are educated and broadminded people, why should we not give our future citizens the true picture of history from an unprejudiced viewpoint? I have referred many of my students to such novels as *Beware the King*, by Honore Willsie Morrow. There we find the true Burke, Pitt, Fox, and George III.

In our regular class work, with the aid of textbooks, I try to have my students understand the development of certain problems: the growth of our English language and the evolution of different types of religion. Both constitute a fascinating study of

ideas and a means of expression and worship. These could fill a year's work, but we attempt to study them with many other developments. I believe that in the past too much time has been spent with political aspects and government and not sufficient time on the study and understanding of the people who make up England. Therefore, I give my students a picture of the English in different periods, their homes and their dress, and also stress the styles of architecture and its influence.

So far, I have discussed plans of using the textbook materials to reach the interests of a variety of students. I should like now to present several techniques other than the textbook discussion. The oral report may sound dry and uninteresting, but textbook study even for a high school senior must be enlarged by such reports. In using Dr. Edward P. Cheyney's *History of England* for our text, we are fortunate in having his book of *Readings* to give us invaluable help. From time to time I read descriptions, or excerpts, from the *Readings* when the wording and style are particularly of value, but more often I assign topics from it to the students. They read carefully the quotation or section; in class the next day they present the ideas they have obtained to substantiate textbook material. Of course, no one doubts the value of these oral reports to the student who prepares and delivers them before a large class of fellow students, but this procedure, of course, also adds much interest to class discussion. From time to time I read to them from the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, Bede's *Ecclesiastical History*, or Samuel Pepys' *Diary*, especially the sections of the latter describing the Great Fire and the Plague. I do not believe that even high school students can get along without such source material, correlated with the work of the textbooks.

During the year we have book reports which are frequently given orally if the book has sufficient historical interest. Several years ago, with the help of our school librarian, I was able to compile a fairly complete list of books in our library, having an historical background based on English history. Many of them are fiction although, of course, many are biographical, which have become increasingly popular in late years. From this list of books, the students make their own selection. After reading a book, they write an appreciation, appraising it both as history and fiction. They are thus able to judge more critically historical fiction.

Once during the year we interrupt regular textbook study to spend several weeks on a term paper. From experience I can say that a large percentage of students enjoy it more than anything we do during the entire course. The time for this part of our work is not definitely set, but I attempt to have students far enough advanced in their study that

when they choose their topics they will have a wide field for selection. They may select either a character in whom they are interested or some institution whose development they wish to study. In permitting them to select their own subject, I feel that they will do much better work than if it is selected for them. Let me mention just a few of the topics which have been selected—The Development of Architecture in England, The British Navy, Money from Earliest Times in England, The History and Development of the English Language, and Costumes and Dress of the English People. This last subject is particularly adapted for girls interested in designing and art, for they may include several illustrations of costumes of certain periods. The topic of architecture allows for originality and designs, for those particularly interested in the field. One of the girls in my class several years ago, wrote on architecture and has now selected it as her major in college. I find the subjects of English Inns, Taverns, and Coffee Houses are of interest to a number of students. A great many, of course, select characters like Oliver Cromwell, Admiral Nelson, William Wallace and Robert Bruce; they enjoy the study of their lives immensely.

The term paper project does not have enjoyment as its sole purpose, for there are several things a teacher may accomplish in the use of this plan. First of all, there seems to be no course in the high school which gives training in taking notes with the use of cards. I have found many students copying verbatim entire paragraphs of material. High school students do not know how to select, weigh, and balance, in order to abstract from a paragraph the idea or ideas it contains. I require that the notes for the term paper be placed on cards. At the top of each card is placed the name of the author, the title of the book, and the page number, so that future reference may be made quickly. The students are also taught the use of footnotes, how to make them, and what certain abbreviations mean. It is really surprising how few seniors know how to use the index of a book, much less such a complicated thing as a footnote. They learn, after all this, the need for using cards in the writing of papers or for the making of speeches.

Next, I require an outline of their material. This is also a technique that seems to be neglected in other courses. Usually, they either place in the outline too much detail or it is so vague that it is absolutely of no use. They need to learn even the fundamentals of outlining. Some students, I find, make the outline and then scurry around to try to find material to fit the subjects they have included in the outline.

In writing the paper they must organize their material. This is, of course, most important. Then, some must learn selection from the mass of material, while others must learn to elaborate, describe and discuss

in an interesting manner. This development of a literary style is important beyond doubt and it can be well taught by a paper or theme on a subject in English history. Students should learn judgment through a knowledge of authority. This enters into their need for familiarity with their authority. They must learn how to keep to the subject of the paper exclusively. The worst evil I have to combat is that of plagiarism, for the students do not seem to understand the harm in using the words of an author as their own. Whole paragraphs from an encyclopedia are sometimes hurled at me as if they were the bona fide possession of the student. It is impossible for any teacher to have a word-for-word knowledge of all her reference books. I do my utmost, but often feel certain that many paragraphs creep in unmarked and are quoted verbatim.

To be complete each paper must have a bibliography in the correct and accepted form. The students' knowledge of authors and books of English history is very much enlarged through this procedure. Most do not seem to be conscious of authors. They know only that the book is a large red one or a small blue one. Beyond that they often have little knowledge. It is necessary to make them author conscious. They must know the type of book and must have an idea of how readable or how understandable it is. Not only do they learn the importance of the book from the author's name rather than by the color of the book, but they also become familiar with a few other leading writers of English history, such as Mr. Gardiner, Mr. Hulme, Mr. Cross and others. Our library has quite an adequate supply of good textbooks, as well as a number of source books, so that once students know how to secure material, they are able to broaden their knowledge. Books are brought from the library to the classroom and used there during the class period for several weeks under the teacher's direct supervision.

In my classroom there is a large bulletin board. This is filled by the students with clippings and pictures from the *New York Times*, *Life*, *News-Week*, and other periodicals. This past year we have had a wealth of pictures and articles concerning the king and the royal family, especially concerning the coronation.

On an average of twice a month we spend one class period entirely on current happenings. Each student gives a report on some article of interest on the subject of present-day England. It may be an article about the prime minister, our ambassador, or a leading statesman of England. Again, the report may concern the government, the field of sports, or some article or sidelight on the activities of royalty. In the past we have never lacked material for interesting discussion and probably will not for some time to come.

As the end of the school year approaches we make a list of outstanding personages in England. Through *Who's Who* and various magazine articles, we learn something of the life and policies of each character, which will make every English history student a more enlightened citizen in the coming years. They should, for example, know the ambassador from England to the United States and our ambassador at St. James. Why should they not know about the present day Englishman, his life and his customs?

We spend several days talking of the interesting places we should like to visit if we were to go to England. We read about the history of the Tower and then look at a photograph and read from Francis Halsey's book, *Seeing Europe with Famous Authors*. We visit together the Houses of Parliament and see (quoting from Wilson Chamberlain) "the peers in their scarlet and ermine robes assemble in the House of Lords to hear their King give his reasons for calling this Parliament, to which he comes in a gold coach." We thrill to witness "the famous changing of the Guard," when a hundred red-coated Guardsmen come swinging pompously into the forecourt of Buckingham-Palace precisely at 10:30 and, lining up opposite the Old Guard, exchange salutes, then pace off to the sentry boxes with Gilbert and Sullivan grandeur, while we hear the band, formed into a circle, play "airs to the King's liking." We go then in imagination to the British Museum, from there to Westminster Abbey, Canterbury, Holyrood, Blarney Castle and many other wonderful places. I really believe that my students, if they ever travel to England, will visit with added pleasure and delight these places we have visited in our English history classroom.

Unless one is a teacher of English history, he cannot imagine the interest that a student may arouse in the classroom when he suddenly comes forth with the words, "I saw something when I was in Scotland," or "my mother knew King George." I seem to have been particularly fortunate in this respect. Last year I had a student who had spent the preceding summer visiting relatives in Scotland and England. The students never tired of hearing him tell how his Scotch relatives lived, what they ate, and how they dressed. They learned much from the experiences of one of their own members. A girl in my class told us how her mother was a cook at Sandringham Palace and how several times King George had spoken to her. This girl brought one of the famous coronation spoons for the class to see. Her family received a London daily paper and the class evinced great interest in the style of the English paper. She also brought to class the memorial issues of the *Illustrated London News* dedicated to Edward VII and George V. Several members of the class sent for issues concerning King George's funeral. One of my boys

whose father was a coachman in England during his younger days had stories of interest to tell.

Motion pictures in the last few years have done much to create interest in characters of English history. For instance, the students loved "Henry VIII and his Wives," "Nine Days a Queen," and "Mary of Scotland." They understood the struggle for empire when they saw "Clive of India"; Good Queen Bess became a real person when they saw Elizabeth on the screen. We discuss the background of a movie and then as many as possible go to see it that evening. The following day we discuss it again. Such questions arise as to whether Katherine Hepburn is as good looking as was Mary of Scotland? Was Queen Mary true to character in "Nine Days a Queen?" Did Mary and Elizabeth ever meet in real life? When they saw "Lloyds of London," they wanted to know whether Nelson did join the navy at the age of twelve, as to what happened to his right arm and his eye, and where Trafalgar was located. Do you believe they will ever forget Nelson and Trafalgar?

The girls were greatly interested in the costumes. Many questions were asked. Did people actually wear such large skirts and such wigs? Much value is derived from the movies as more and more the research laboratories of Hollywood and also of the London Film Company have been checking for historical accuracy, especially in regard to the physical aspects of the past.

Several members of the class had seen a good historical play, such as *Mary of Scotland*, *Elizabeth the Queen*, *Victoria Regina* or some of the Shakespearean plays of the old English kings. In our study of Victoria and her life, I have tried to bring to the class a picture of Helen Hayes as she was on the stage and have read scenes from the play. There are certain scenes in that play which, if read or heard, show more of Victoria's character than hours and hours of talking in general about her. The students love the scene of Albert's acceptance of marriage to Victoria and also the shaving scene. Why should we not try to approach the students with small instances of amusement and in that way cement their interest in studying more about characters from the pages of English history?

Only a few years ago, we were not able to enjoy all the wonderful programs we now receive from England by radio. Remember a few years ago the broadcast early Thanksgiving morning of the marriage of the Duke of Kent and Princess Marina? My students knew about the whole ceremony several weeks beforehand and so they arose at 5:30 on Thanksgiving morning to hear the very words of the Archbishop of Canterbury and those of the Duke and the Princess. The ceremony preceding, and following the Westminster service was so clearly described that one felt actually to be a witness to the whole lovely

scene. Several times the words of George V were broadcast to his empire. Then a year ago last January, following the news of his death we kept our ears close to the radio listening to announcements regarding the arrangements for his funeral. The services in St. George's Chapel actually took place during a class period and of course we had a radio in the classroom to hear the entire service. While we listened we looked at the lovely St. George's Chapel as shown in the *Illustrated London News*. Then we studied the royal family next in line to the throne and we learned more about all the members of royalty than at any time in the previous five months of study. We learned of relationships, inheritances, possessions, and court procedure, and customs. This was certainly studying history in the making. Then we listened many times to Edward VIII and to many speeches by the leading statesmen of England until the very abdication of King Edward. All the members of my class who listened to Edward's farewell speech will always be thankful for the radio, which enabled them to hear an event of the century.

In the course of our study we must naturally study the building up of the greatest empire on earth. We study each imperial unit, drawing maps, learning the size of each, the population, the types of people, and the problems of government. This work is of great interest especially if a member of the class is corresponding with someone in New Zealand or South Africa. Just in the past month in a series of forum lectures, a great leader of India came to our auditorium for an evening lecture. Every member of the English history class was given a ticket to hear Sir Albion Banerji. His lecture on India was splendid and most enlightening, giving his audience a clear picture of social conditions under the caste system and the religious problems. Particularly were we interested in hearing of India's new constitution and the possibility of India leaving the empire. This former ruler of one of India's provinces, a Brahman by birth, definitely believes that England cannot afford to lose India and even less can India afford to give up England. Thus, as India is held together by certain bonds to the empire, we learn of the other parts and realize that there is more than one reason for the continuance of the greatest empire in these years of world turmoil.

I must not fail to mention one of the most interesting things we do in our classroom. Near the Christmas season we spend several days studying from William S. Walsh's *Curiosities of Popular Customs*. Especially at that season they enjoy the story of the Druids and the gathering of the mistletoe, the carrying in of the Yule log and the customs of Merrie

England at this gay season. We also study other customs, such as the curfew laws of William the Conqueror and the story of the Blarney Stone.

We find in our study of modern England so much that is custom; for instance, "every year on the first day of the new session of Parliament in England, the corps of beefeaters from the Tower of London searches the cellars of the House to see whether there is another Guy Fawkes down there trying to blow up the Houses of Parliament." In the March, 1937, number of *Scribner's Magazine* an article by Wilson Chamberlain, "There's Peace in Pageantry," tells how port is drunk in every "pub" merely because Queen Anne in a spat with France placed a tax on French wines over a hundred years ago. We learn of the privileges of certain guilds in the "ancient and actual City of London." Why must the king ask permission at Charing Cross to enter the City of London? Mr. Chamberlain says "one of the most perplexing things about English pageantry is the very paradox of it."

Of course, the girls in the class are always interested when we spend a day on how one is presented at Court. We study the preparation in learning the exact bow, the approach and retreat and then, of course, the exact length of the train that must be worn and the style of dress. We study the whole procedure from the time the invitations are sent out, the minute of arrival for the occasion, and through the entire ceremony.

I have tried to bring to your attention the means I employ in teaching English history to my high school students. I have not made a defense for its teaching as a course in the high school. It has been said in my own school that it is rather a "luxury" course. I do not feel that this is true in any sense of the word. Luxury is defined by Mr. Webster as "anything pleasurable but not necessary."

A survey made among my own English history students showed that all but one liked the course very much. Forty-four per cent of them liked it better than any other type of history they had studied. A percentage of them never liked any history until they took the course in English history. If we have any defense at all for the teaching of history to students we have gone far, if we have first created in them a real interest in the subject.

If America is to have educated citizens with a broad understanding of world problems, we must try to steer away from the European ideas of regimentation and give our students a cultural background. English history can aid in doing this. Only in this way will students be able to face in an intelligent manner the problems of the future.

Functional Civics

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For a long time teachers of civics or government have been concerned about the *attitude* of students studying the subject. While some pupils take a real interest, it is evident that many take the course merely because it is required and are concerned primarily with "passing the tests" and getting a required credit. They do not look upon the course as satisfying a felt need, or as something to function in their own daily lives. Since the real purpose of such a course is training in citizenship, it would seem that the building of desirable attitudes and habits of behavior should be at least of equal importance to the acquisition of facts about government.

With these ideas in mind the writer, with the consent of the school administration, has tried for two years an experiment of conducting a civics class along somewhat different lines from the traditional class procedure. Each semester, study in the experimental class has been based upon current problems and presents needs as much as possible. Each student has had his own copy of a standard weekly news survey (one semester it was *The American Observer*; last semester it was *News-Week*) and also at least one of the local dailies. Many students also read outside dailies, such as the Chicago newspapers and the *New York Times*. The magazines, *Review of Reviews*, *Current History*, *Survey Graphic*, *Forum* and *New Republic* were kept on a reading table in the classroom, available to all students.

This was not, however, just a class in current events, but present issues formed the starting point, and a current political problem furnished the motive for some real study and research in government. For example, the class last semester was just starting the course at the time of the inauguration of President Roosevelt. Most of the members of the class had heard the inaugural address over the radio. People were still talking about this address, and also about the annual message to Congress which the President had delivered. Thus, in a perfectly natural way the question was raised as to how and when a new President is chosen, as well as questions of his relationship to Congress and the respective powers of these two parts of our government. A little later came the announcement of President Roosevelt's plan for reorganization of the federal courts, followed by the

flood of publicity both for and against the plan. This, of course, instigated a study of the whole judiciary system, and brought about a familiarity with the makeup, powers, and personnel of the Supreme Court, which no mere textbook assignments ever could have achieved. Since the matter of a "strict" or "liberal" interpretation of the federal Constitution was back of the court controversy, a natural interest in the Constitution itself was created, especially, when the whole text of the Constitution and amendments was printed in one of the local dailies. Thus was motivated a study of the Constitution as a living, functioning plan of government, instead of an ancient, musty document found hidden away in the back of a textbook.

As a further example of thus motivating the study of *actual* government in operation, there came up late in April in newspapers and news magazines accounts of the debates in Congress and outside it, concerning the federal budget and ways and means of balancing it. This brought about, of course, an investigation by the students of the matter of governmental budgets, governmental expenditures, and sources of revenue. The state legislature being in session during the semester furnished plenty of leads for a study of the functioning of our state government, while local events, such as the appointment by the city council of a committee of citizens to study the installation of a sewage disposal plant, appointment by the mayor of an additional milk inspector, and many other similar items created an interest in the further study of how our city government operates. In fact, the essential features of national, state, and local government were covered almost entirely as a consequence of problems raised by events that were happening in the contemporary life of the students.

Another phase of this experiment was to *practice* citizenship and to learn by doing. Thus, early in the semester the class decided to elect officers and appoint committees to participate in the planning of the course. In order that the choosing of officers would really be a learning process, it was decided to nominate and elect officers in the same manner as that used in selecting a President and Vice-President of the United States. Of course, this motivated a study of how nominations and elections are carried out. After

the necessary preparation a Republican national convention was held, each student representing the delegation from a different state. The regular convention committees were selected, the convention organized, and candidates for President and Vice-President were nominated. The next day a Democratic procedure was followed in carrying out the functions of a convention. In each, the opportunity was given for the resolutions committee to present its platform, which was discussed and adopted by the group. After the conventions had been held, an election day was set, a regular precinct election board chosen, ballots prepared, and the election carried out according to legal regulations.

The student who had been elected President appointed a secretary, a committee on objectives of the course, and an assignment committee.

The committee on objectives had each member of the class hand in suggestions as to what he believed might be the outcomes of the course. After several committee meetings, the following objectives were recommended to the class:

1. To be able to understand and interpret intelligently the problems of modern government that are continually coming up in our own lives.
2. To form habits of reading critically magazine and newspaper articles concerning the political problems of our day.
3. To become informed as to how our national, state, and local governments really function.

4. To form interests and habits of thinking that will make us intelligent participants in the important duties of citizenship.

After some discussion, these objectives were adopted by a vote of the class.

The assignment committee met once a week and planned in a general way the work for the ensuing week. After the reading and discussion of the arguments on the reorganization of the Supreme Court, which were made before the Judiciary Committee of the United States Senate, the class resolved itself into the Senate and after some warm debate passed the President's court bill by a small margin.

The question might be raised as to whether every semester might be so fortunate a time for such an experiment. Would there be so many important public questions before the American people every year as during the past few months? In regard to this question, I can only point out that this experiment has now been going on for three semesters and there has been no class that has not found a sufficient variety of current questions to cover the entire range of government from local to national.

So far, this has not been carried out as a scientific experiment with a control group by which to check results, but it has seemed to demonstrate that something can be done to interest pupils in the study of government as a living, functioning organization, and that the motive "studying for use" might be substituted for that of studying only enough to "get by the test."

Peace and the Schools

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Should the teacher be a propagandist for peace or a prophet of the inevitable war? Should he remain neutral on this as on every other controversial question as some theoretical educators think possible? Should our textbooks and assembly programs be carriers of a jaundiced outlook on other nations, instruments of the sounding drums of nationalism, defenders of the faith, and incidentally, devices that will secure the beneficent and profitable approval of certain patriotic organizations? Should the teacher and the school, in shaping a policy for the selection of textbooks and assembly programs for the school as a whole, have a larger social conscience to follow than the narrow dictation of some patriotic groups? If so,

what is this social conscience? What are its principles?

If schools are to quit their attitude of subservience and boldly exercise even a cautious leadership, three broad objectives must be adopted: (1) to re-interpret patriotism as it now exists; (2) to develop an attitude of national humility; (3) to bring an understanding of the causes and the results of war.

It is necessary to re-interpret patriotism because as it now exists it means loyalty to one's country only by fighting some other country. Psychological tests have been taken in schools that involve an association of words. Opposite the word "ice," for example, the student is asked to write the word most closely associated with ice, and he writes "cold"; or in the case

of the word "fire" he writes "heat." Opposite the word "patriotism" the student invariably writes "war." Devotion to our country usually means *War!* Yet, are we so surprised at this? War does mean supreme sacrifice, does demand high courage, does demand forgetfulness of self—all unquestioned ideals. When such ideals are wrapped with the high drama and adventure of war so common in movies and literature, the result is natural.

Patriotism and war are closely associated in patriotic programs and textbooks. Think of the usual Armistice and Memorial Day programs. Even Washington and Lincoln birthday programs frequently bring out the same partnership of war and patriotism as in the case of commemorating the winter at Valley Forge and the Battle of Gettysburg. These programs dramatize loyalty, self-sacrifice, fortitude—all indispensable ideals; but is it not tragic that hovering over and about these ideals is the constantly associated mental picture of men killing men? The human mind in fact has difficulty in associating such ideals in any other way—in the patriotic sense—so fixed has the pattern of thought become.

In one of the most widely used American history texts in the United States, the author writes of Scott's operations in the Mexican War as follows:

... He stormed the fortified heights about the city and on the thirteenth of September entered the Mexican capital and raised the Stars and Stripes over the 'palace of the Montezumas!'

Here is another extract on the victory of Taylor at Buena Vista in the same vein:

... with the watchword 'Honor of Washington' passing down the American line the battle began which lasted till the evening of the following day. Again and again, it seemed as if the little American army must be swept off the field, but Taylor was worth thousands of troops as he sat intrepid and imperturbable on the back of 'old Whitey' directing the battle, while our soldiers cheered him and fought like demons.¹

Let no one be mistaken. These are the lines that are read over and over again by the average boy. How the heart leaps when he reads those thrilling words "fought like demons." If it is true that the men fought like demons in the Battle of Buena Vista and General Taylor sat like a rock, and if the author thinks that is the particular idea that needs emphasis, then it should be told just that way. People who desire peace have no right to demand that national histories become vehicles for peace propaganda; but they do have a right to demand that histories cease to be vehicles for war propaganda. Courage and high enterprise for one's country—is that not revealed elsewhere than in military conquest? Surely our

writers of history can portray truthfully no finer courage and fortitude in serving our country than examples taken from the pioneer movement, the empire builders, and the much more tremendous drama than any war—America's conquest of a great material civilization and the attempt to plant in that civilization a new type of social and political organization.

To divorce war from patriotism is not enough then; it must be replaced by a moral equivalent of war. Youth demands a fighting patriotism—else it becomes a pallid thing. The school's responsibility is to give patriotism a new meaning just as appealing, just as forceful, just as idealistic as the old meaning, only with war left out or greatly minimized. Let the enemy instead become disease, poverty, waste, crime, ignorance, and greed.

What finer patriotism is there than that being practiced by an obscure woman doctor giving herself over to experiments with cancer in the hope of conquering that dreaded disease? What higher ideal of patriotism is there than that of Sherwood Eddy, champion of the southern poverty-stricken share-cropper? What about men like Jefferson, Henry George, Jacob Riis, Andrew Carnegie, Steinmetz, Edison, Lincoln Steffens, Walt Whitman, Edward Bok, or women like Ida Tarbell, Jane Addams, Josephine Roche. Overwhelming odds, high courage, loyalty, unselfishness, and a definite enemy, are all there. Yet not one of these persons is associated in our minds with war—except in fighting against it.

To remove or minimize from the word patriotism and its ideals, the present all important concept of war and replace it with "War's moral equivalent," is the first duty of the schools. Patriotism would then become an instrument of peace rather than what it now is, a drumhead of war.

The second responsibility of the school is to develop national humility. By this is meant the opposite of national pride, national arrogance, and the attitude of national superiority. National humility does not mean to be ashamed or apologetic because one is a citizen of the United States. It does mean a consciousness of national faults and national mistakes as well as of virtues and accomplishments. It also means a consciousness and understanding of the services, virtues, and contributions made by other countries of the world as well as their mistakes and inferior qualities.

A study of European and world history that is not distorted by too much political and military history should provide this understanding. It should lead for instance to an appreciation of the value to world civilization of Germany's music, of France's writings, of England's literature, of Holland's art, of Italy's pure science, of Denmark's applied science in agriculture and economics. Literature, art, science, and thought, are all a legitimate and essential part of the

world's history. Newton, Locke and Shakespeare of England; Galileo, Caruso, Stradivarius, Da Vinci and Marconi of Italy; Rubens, Rembrandt and Maeterlinck of the Netherlands; Hans Andersen, Ibsen and Nobel of the Scandinavian countries; Tolstoy, Pushkin and Tchaikowsky of Russia; Goethe, Mozart, Diesel, and Wagner of Germany—these are but examples of the giants of a *unified* civilization, not a separated one. That person who is informed about the world as a whole, about its history, its struggle, and the qualities of each nationality that make up the world, can be only a citizen of the world, and such a citizen always has been and always will be the chief antagonist to wars between nations.

A truthful history of the United States will frankly admit the dubious wisdom of the war of 1812, the imperialistic motives of the United States in the Mexican and Spanish wars, the selfish application of the Monroe Doctrine so that during the nineteenth century there were thirty South American conferences called for the purpose of protection against the United States, and our relative barrenness of artistic and scientific contributions up to the end of the nineteenth century. At the same time the student should appreciate the magnificent energy and resourceful enterprise of the American people and the enormous significance of our relatively democratic social and political system. Such a history would approximate the truth much more than the typical nationalistic history of today. Such a study of our own country along with the above study of European and world history should provide a balanced and sane outlook that would make national arrogance and that sneering superiority of ignorance an absolute impossibility.

The third objective is to insure the teaching of key concepts and facts about the causes and the results of war. There is a distinction between the real reasons for war and the good or moral reasons. This should be taught. Providing moral reasons for war is merely disguise, a device to dress up the ghastly business and make it appear perfumed and elegant. Perhaps medieval wars were idealistic in origin but the modern war must not be justified by any high sounding claptrap.

Students should learn that most modern wars have been caused by national rivalry for raw materials, markets for finished products, and investments of surplus credit by corporations of large industrial countries in weaker countries. They should learn that Woodrow Wilson was sharply and pointedly pressed by powerful business leaders to enter the World War in 1917 in order to avoid a major economic depression and to permit the United States government to support the flagging credit of allied powers. This, it was urged, would sustain the great flow of exports out of the United States and so sustain the economic blessings of the current boom.

They should be taught that peace often may involve heavy temporary penalties in the form of low prices to the farmer, low dividends to the stockholder, low wages for the worker. Charles A. Beard in his book, *The Devil Theory of War* (New York: The Vanguard Press, 1936), makes clear the economic steps of the United States preceding our entrance into the World War. These should be made unmistakably clear to as many students as possible.

The student should study the power of a propagandized press as a force for war. The fickleness of public opinion and the ease with which the United States has been duped in the past should be clearly understood. Let students recall how even the peace societies and women's clubs, overnight almost, changed from the champions of peace to become the baton of a flaming war parade and by a tricky twist of reasoning justified war in the name of peace!

Also, the contributing factors of nationalistic pride and rival antagonisms, the system of entangling alliances, the competitive factor in armaments, should be carefully studied.

Progress in the cause of peace cannot go far by seeing only one phase of the problem. Such oversimplification of the causes of war is dangerous in itself. Oversimplifying the problem can result finally, only in disappointment and disillusionment. A defeatist attitude develops toward war such as actually exists today and hangs like a pall over every country of Europe and to a lesser extent other parts of the world. This is another cause of war and should be vigorously attacked by the schools. The very fact that civilization considers war as certain, makes it so. Yet, war is felt to be inevitable and is presented to us as such daily over the radio, in our magazines and large city daily newspapers, and yes, even in our local newspapers and churches. No one wants war, all dread it, yet we are represented as if we were helpless automatons in the hands of some giant and malign God of War. We are presented with the amazing spectacle of a great civilization walking toward the chasm of another general war and its own destruction, knowing well that it is doing this, and yet displaying neither the vigor nor the capacity necessary to avert its own intermittent, unhurrying approach to self-destruction. Like an idiot's nightmare, it merely mumbles over and over, "It is inevitable that I do this, inevitable, inevitable," until finally the ghostly shadows of civilization's schools, homes, churches, women's clubs and all organizations of good will merely echo back, "Yes, it *is* inevitable."

The task of the school is to educate against the feeling of futility, of defeatism, which is a special cause of war. It must do so by teaching that the problem of world peace is extremely difficult and probably a long-time process. If the school is to play an important part in education toward world peace it

cannot teach either the smug optimism of the ignorant or, on the other hand, the sterile philosophy of the disillusioned cynic.

Finally, results must be imprinted indelibly. The United States government budget is good material for that. One result of war is that over one thousand million dollars was spent last year (1936), in preparation for some future war, the highest figure by the way, of any country in the world. What would happen if someone should suggest in Congress the expenditure of an additional million for world peace. In the words of Senator Gerald Nye, "He would be laughed off his feet." Eighty per cent of the federal budget in 1932 was spent because of past wars or in anticipation of future wars. That war is by far a greater problem than even unemployment or anything else in the matter of federal budgetary requirements is another result of war. For the moral and spiritual results, let the students read books like E. M. Remarque's *All Quiet on the Western Front* (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1929), E. M. Remarque's *The Road Back* (Little, Brown and Company, 1931), and Arnold Zweig's *Case of Sargeant Grischka* (New York: Grosset and Dunlap, 1929). For the political results let them study Hitler's war

program as revealed in his book *Mein Kampf* (London: Houghton Publishing Company, 1933), and see how the last war planted in the Versailles Treaty the seeds of the next war, that have produced as their best crop so far Adolph Hitler and Benito Mussolini.

International problems demand international treatment to be fully effective. The above program then, or any program for peace in the schools, must have as its ultimate goal—worldwide application. Any state, community, or school should not wait for such a day, but should immediately and boldly launch with all the strength of its conviction its independent action for world peace. At least it shall be doing all in its small but direct power to solve an international problem and perhaps such a program in one school might help to fire the imagination of other schools to follow the same program and thus create an ever widening circle of educational development for peace. In the words of Justice Brandeis, "If we are to guide by the light of reason, we must let our minds be bold."

¹ David Muzzey, *The American People* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1934), pp. 303, 304. Similar examples may be found in other textbooks.

A Program of Diagnostic Testing and Remedial Teaching in World History

A Statistical Study

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The program set forth below was undertaken in order to find out if possible: (1) why so many pupils studying world history, seem unable to remember factual material; (2) why they do not seem able to develop a sense of relative values; (3) why there appears to be a lack of ability on their part to correlate present-day problems and events with the events of the past; and (4) why, after they have left school, they do not seem able to make any intelligent use of the lessons which world history should have taught them.

Other factors which influenced a choice of the

present topic were the seemingly growing importance of the subject of world history in the curriculum of the secondary school, and the scarcity of tests, both diagnostic and survey, in this field.

PROCEDURE

The objectives were determined mainly by an inspection of textbooks in the field. An attempt was made to classify objectives under the following headings: (1) Factual Knowledge; (2) Contributions of the Past; (3) Cause and Effect; and (4) Tying the Past and Present Together. This classification was

used as a guide in diagnosing pupil difficulties in the study of world history.

As a preliminary step the intelligence quotients, mental ages, and previous records of the group were obtained. According to the Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability these pupils had a median I.Q. of 96, and a mental age of 13 years, 5 months. As to their previous record in history thirty-three out of the forty-five pupils made a median score of 11 in the American history unit of the Stanford Graduation Examination as compared with a national norm of 9.8. The Pearson Product-Moment Coefficient of Correlation between the scores on the Stanford Graduation Examination in eighth grade American history and the scores in the world history at the end of the first semester was computed and found to be .338, P.E. 104. This shows chances of 69 to 1 that the true correlation is above zero. By the same method the grades which the pupils obtained in their eighth grade American history were correlated with their first semester world history grades and the result was a negative coefficient —.140.

The tests used were constructed by the writer. In the problems on Factual Knowledge, the following type was used:

1. Constantinople fell in the year —

The true and false type was used in the tests for Contributions of the Past. An example follows:

1. We owe the development of the alphabet mainly to the Phoenicians. YES NO

Cause and Effect was tested by the best answer test. The following is an example:

1. The Crusades took place because
 - (1) of a desire to see the Holy Land.
 - (2) the Saracens or Moslems were threatening the safety of the Eastern (Christian) Empire.
 - (3) The knights of those days were fighting men and were constantly seeking adventure.

Under Tying the Past and Present Together, the multiple response type of test was also used.

1. Feudalism is by no means an unheard of thing today. Until very recently one of the following countries had a feudal form of government. Which?

Argentine England Sweden Japan

Scoring was in conformity with recent books on tests and measurements.

A test in ability to read historical material was also constructed and given to the students. It showed a validity coefficient of .622, P.E. .071 when compared with the Stanford Achievement Examination (section on reading), and a reliability coefficient of .850, P. E. .022. A test of the survey type

was also administered at the conclusion of the experiment.

Table 1 shows the reliability coefficients of the various tests.

TABLE I
COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION OF THE TESTS USED IN EXPERIMENT

TEST	PEARSON	STEPPED UP BY SPEARMAN-BROWN PROPHECY FORMULA
First Diagnostic Test	.749, P.E. .042	.856
Second Diagnostic Test	.779, P.E. .038	.875
Third Diagnostic Test	.790, P.E. .038	.882
History Reading Test	.850, P.E. .022	.918
World History Survey Test	.857, P.E. .013	.923

A claim of validity for the diagnostic and survey tests is based on the fact that the various questions and statements that were used were selected almost entirely from the basal text. This applies not only to the factual material, but also to the questions which were intended to stimulate thought. It was easily possible to devise questions of different kinds because the text which was used goes to considerable lengths to set before the pupil constantly causes, results, contributions of the past, philosophical discussions, etc.

The three diagnostic tests were successively administered at the end of each of the three six weeks' periods of the first school term. Remedial work in the form of intensive drill and review in class, special reports, and mimeographed study aids, was then conducted for a period of two weeks after which the pupils were again given tests similar to the diagnostic tests. The re-tests were made as nearly like the initial tests as possible for the following reasons: (1) it was necessary to have two tests which would be comparable and upon which exact statistical procedures could be employed; (2) the epochs which were covered in each six weeks' period did not contain enough material to warrant the construction of two forms of the test in which all the problems set forth would be different, but of the same weight; and (3) if two entirely different forms had been constructed it would have been necessary to have weighted scientifically the questions in order to be sure that the questions were of equivalent value.

RESULTS

At the end of the first two six weeks' periods the re-tests divulged substantial gains. This may be attributed at least in part to the period of remedial instruction. The median score on the first diagnostic test was 46.7, and on the re-test was 62.3. The median score on the second diagnostic test was 48.2, and on the re-test was 61.2. The median score on the third diagnostic test was 40.9. It will however be noted

that the scores on each of the three diagnostic tests were about of equal significance.

By transmuting the scores into Z scores the following trends are noted: the median Z score on Factual Knowledge was $-.191$; on Contributions of the Past $-.109$; on Cause and Effect $-.200$; and on Tying the Past and Present Together $-.100$. This would indicate that relatively the group had a better understanding of the fourth factor than of the other three, and that they understood least the phase which dealt with Cause and Effect.

The partial regression coefficients of each of the four factors as compared with their general knowledge of world history (as measured by the survey test) were also computed and disclosed the fact that their knowledge of the Contributions of the Past seemed to have the most weight, the coefficient being $.7689$, and Tying the Past and Present Together, the least with a negative coefficient of $-.2791$.

The survey test given at the conclusion of the experiment resulted in a median score of 53.5 as compared with a median score of 54.5 on the same test by the class of the preceding year. It must be noted however that the median I.Q. of the preceding class was 100 while the I.Q. of the group used in this study was 96. At any rate the general accomplishment of the two groups was about the same.

One further result may be noted, that is, the correlation between ability to read and achievement in history. These coefficients will be found in Table II.

TABLE II
PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT COEFFICIENTS OF
CORRELATION BETWEEN READING AND
ACCOMPLISHMENT IN WORLD HISTORY

	HISTORY SURVEY	FACTUAL KNOWLEDGE	CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE PAST	CAUSE AND EFFECT	TYING THE PAST AND PRESENT TOGETHER
Reading	.590	.691	.733	.576	.632

SUMMARY

1. The group which was used in this study was a little below the average in mental ability.
2. Thirty-three of the forty-five members of this group made a very satisfactory score at the end of their eighth school year in the American history test of the Stanford Graduation Examination.
3. It would be impractical to predict probable success in tenth grade world history on the basis of achievement in eighth grade American history.
4. Both periods of remedial teaching were followed by substantial gains in accomplishment.
5. There seemed to be no carry-over in accom-

plishment from one period of remedial teaching to the next.

6. Factual knowledge seemed to give the greatest amount of trouble to the group in so far as the percentage of correct replies was concerned.

7. The brighter pupils uniformly did better in acquiring factual knowledge, and the duller pupils consistently did their poorest work in this phase.

8. The Z scores show that the group did its best work in arriving at an understanding of Tying the Past and Present Together.

9. The Z scores and other data point out the fact that the group experienced its greatest difficulty in understanding Cause and Effect.

10. The general accomplishment of the group in world history seemed to have been influenced neither favorably nor adversely.

11. The partial regression coefficients showed that relatively the knowledge of the Contributions of the Past by the group had greatest weight in determining their general accomplishment as measured by the final survey test.

12. Ability to read exerts considerable influence upon ability to understand history especially to understand the Contributions of the Past.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The amount of factual knowledge taught should be held to a minimum.
2. More attention should be given to a study of relationships (cause and effect).
3. Somewhat more attention should be given to an attempt to correlate present day events with the past.
4. Ability to read well is essential. If this ability is lacking time should be spent in developing it.
5. To attempt to teach ideas of an abstract nature to those of low mental ability appears to possess elements of danger. Tests and recitations showed that they misconstrued these ideas in a most dangerous manner. The teacher must be very careful if he is not to plant untrue and distorted conceptions in the minds of the duller pupils.
6. The results of this experiment tended to show that tenth grade pupils were too immature to comprehend fully the lessons and implications of world history. The subject should show more profitable results if placed in a more advanced grade.
7. Since this study represents the findings from a group of only forty-five students, since all the tests were constructed by the writer, and in view of the fact that very little research has been actually done in this field, the writer sincerely recommends the subject of world history as a worthy field for further and more intense experimentation.

The Founding of New England Academies

An Integrated English-History-Art Unit

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Our integrated project started quite naturally as an outgrowth of questions propounded to me by my students in History III and English III classes. Some of the queries were of this type—"Is Bacon Academy the oldest in Connecticut?" "What are the oldest academies in the other New England States?" "Why were academies founded instead of high schools?" "Why can't we make a study of these schools?" There were many other interrogations too numerous to record in this brief study.

Immediately we counted noses and found that eight members of the History III class also were members of English III. That was our starting point. We took these eight people and as far as was practicable, made them chairmen of groups taken from English III in order that all members of that class might participate in the project.

The chairmen met with the teacher for advice about the proper choice of the committee members, and visited the Cragin Library for reference books dealing with early academy history. As our local library lacked for reference books, they decided to write to the Commissioners of Education for Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, particularly to secure academy lists from their respective states.

Forthwith the pupils sent the letters, and shortly received courteous and detailed replies which usually contained lists of the older academies in the six New England states together with interesting information about these once private schools, their graduates, and their history.

The group chairmen now wrote letters to several headmasters in each one of the New England states; but before they mailed them, we enjoyed an interesting project—the composition of a form letter. Such questions as—"To whom shall we write?" "Will these principals be certain to reply?" "How may we frame our queries briefly in order to secure the greatest amount of information?" "Will they send us pictures and catalogs?"—were asked, discussed, and answered to the satisfaction of the class-members.

The appended form letter (See Note 1) brought complete, definite, and stimulating answers. In the meantime, of course, we delved deeply into the history of Bacon Academy, using this local material as a yardstick for the measurement and evaluation of other academies whenever the opportunity might come.

The mass of material we separated into six large folders labelled *Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut*. Students wrote pertinent notes on the covers for future reference.

Next came the problem of selection and rejection. The committee finally chose fourteen academies from our complete list and with the aid of their assistants, worked out the following headings:

I. *Academies Considered Chronologically* (See Note 2)

- A. Academy
- B. Town
- C. State
- D. Founder
- E. Date

II. *Academies By States* (See Note 3)

- A. Academy
- B. Town
- C. State
- D. Founder
- E. Date

The uniformity of our replies justified the use of these two main headings with their subdivisions.

Next we made a study of the *original* purposes of the academy founders as well as the *present* educational purpose of these schools. This proved to be a harder nut to crack. Starting with Bacon Academy, past and present, "Free Education for Colchester Youth," the class-members studied carefully the letters, catalogs, and yearbooks. They secured the desired information from thirteen of the fourteen institutions chosen as typical of all New England

academies. Some of the original aims were religious instruction, preparation for college, guarded education for the rising generation, good learning and high ideals. (See Note 4)

Now for the pictures. None of our pupils has had formal instruction in drawing but many have latent talents and are anxious to develop them. The committee members made a careful survey of the two classes as well as of the school in general in order to secure workers and directors. The mechanical drawing class volunteered to do the printing and lettering. Ten posters resulted which showed pictures of ten of the original academy buildings (See Note 5) and included:

1. Name of the Academy
2. Location by Town and State
3. Date of Founding
4. Name of the Founder or Founders
5. Résumé of Purpose of Founder or Founders

One pupil suggested that the public might like to learn something more detailed about each academy; consequently a typewritten sheet was pasted on each of the posters. Willing workers collected the chief reference material and decided upon the following headings (See Note 6):

1. State Authorities
2. Academy Authorities
3. Publications of State Offices
4. Publications of Academies
5. State, County, and Town Histories
6. Two Unpublished Monographs on the Academy

Our project was thus completed. I feel that this integrated English-history-art project has been well worth while. The pupils have learned much of value from carrying out that which has originated largely from their own suggestions, from drawing upon their own experience, and from interpreting them in terms of larger and more mature projects. Some of the results achieved, are:

1. Sense of responsibility assumed by individual class member.
2. Efficient use of the public library reference room.
3. Research in books, pamphlets, yearbooks, and letters, often under the instructor's direction.
4. Collection of pertinent materials.
5. Condensation of pertinent materials.
6. Organization of pertinent materials.
7. Correct, concise writing.
8. Composition of the form letter.
9. Comparison of founders' purposes with the present purpose of these academies.

10. Comparison of early and present curricula.
11. Historical references.
12. Noted alumni and alumnae.
13. Freehand posters, showing original buildings.
14. The appreciation of our own academy.
15. Preparation of bibliography.

Note 1.

Form Letter

Bacon Academy,
Colchester, Connecticut,
February 15, 1937.

The Headmaster
____ Academy,
____, Maine

DEAR SIR:

The members of the Bacon Academy English III-History III classes desire to work out a Unit Project about New England Academies, and will appreciate your coöperation and courtesy in answering the following questions:

1. Correct Name of the Academy.
2. Town.
3. State.
4. Founder or Founders.
5. Date of Founding.
6. Religious Denomination.
7. Purpose of Founder.
8. Present Purpose of the Academy.
9. Changes in Curricula.
10. Do any of the Original Buildings Remain?
11. Noted Alumni or Alumnae.
12. Historical References.
13. Public or Private at Present?

The undersigned class member will be glad to receive any catalogs, pamphlets, yearbooks, or other school publications.

An addressed stamped envelope is enclosed for your convenience.

Yours truly,

Note 2.

Academies Considered Chronologically

Academy	Town-State	Founder	Date
Governor Dummer	South Byfield, Mass.	Governor W. Dummer	1763
Phillips-Exeter	Exeter, N.H.	Dr. John Phillips	1783
Moses Brown	Providence, R.I.	Quaker	1784
Appleton	New Ipswich, N.H.	Samuel Appleton	1789
Berwick	South Berwick, Me.	Lord, Chadbourne and others	1791
Fryeburg	Fryeburg, Me.	Rev. W. Fessenden	1792
East Greenwich	East Greenwich, R.I.	Methodist Church	1801
Bacon	Colchester, Conn.	Pierpoint Bacon	1803
Wilbraham	Wilbraham, Mass.	Methodist Church	1817
Burr and Burton	Manchester, Vt.	Joseph Burr	1833
St. Johnsbury	St. Johnsbury, Vt.	Josiah Burton	1842
		By three brothers: Erastus Fairbanks, Joseph Fairbanks, Thaddeus Fairbanks	
Norwich Free	Norwich, Conn.	Fifty Citizens of Norwich under the leadership of Dr. John Putnam Guiliver.	1854
Lyndon Institute	Lyndon, Vt.	Baptist Convention	1867
Vermont	Saxtons River, Vt.	Baptist Convention	1876

Note 3.

Academies Considered by States

Academies	Town-State	Founder	Date
Berwick	South Berwick, Me.	Lord, Chadbourne and others	1791
Fryeburg	Fryeburg, Me.	Rev. W. Fessenden	1792
Phillips-Exeter	Exeter, N.H.	Dr. John Phillips	1783
Appleton	New Ipswich, N.H.	Samuel Appleton	1789
Burr and Burton	Manchester, Vt.	Joseph Burr	1833
St. Johnsbury	St. Johnsbury, Vt.	Josiah Burton	1842
		By three brothers	
		Erastus Fairbanks	
		Joseph Fairbanks	
		Thaddeus Fairbanks	
Lyndon Institute	Lyndon Center, Vt.	Baptist Convention	1867
Vermont Governor	Saxtons River, Vt.	Baptist Convention	1876
Dummer	South Byfield, Mass.	Governor W. Dummer	1763
Wilbraham	Wilbraham, Mass.	Methodist Church	1817
Moses Brown	Providence, R.I.	Quaker	1784
East Greenwich	East Greenwich, R.I.	Methodist Church	1801
Bacon Academy	Colchester, Conn.	Pierpoint Bacon	1803
Norwich Free	Norwich, Conn.	Fifty Citizens of Norwich under the leadership of Dr. John Putnam Guiliver.	1854

Note 4.

Purpose of the Academy Founders

1. Berwick Academy founded "for the purpose of furnishing thorough academic training and fitting its students for honorable and useful careers in life." The school has served respectively as a private and semi-private institution, a boys' school and co-educational institution, serving the town as a free high school at present.

2. Fryeburg Academy founded "for the purpose of promoting piety, religion, and morality; and for the education of youth." The academy now exists to offer young men and women a well-rounded education, to prepare them for college, and to help them lay the foundation for character which will strengthen them throughout life.

3. Phillips-Exeter Academy founded as college preparatory. While it has changed to meet the needs of the time, it still largely prepares for college.

4. Appleton Academy founded "to furnish young gentlemen a thorough preparation for college, and to furnish boys and girls a course of study for the duties of business life and for teaching." The course of study is now chiefly college preparatory, civic, and commercial, in a town which is made up of Finnish people.

5. Burr and Burton Seminary founded to encourage education for boys and girls.

6. St. Johnsbury Academy. "It is intended," said the founders, "to make the course of study pursued in the school, a means of thorough intellectual discipline—such discipline as will develop the capacities of the student, and make him acquainted with himself. Such training can only be accomplished by a continued and systematic course of study, in which whatever is undertaken, shall be thoroughly investigated and understood before it is dismissed." At present it is an academy of good learning and high ideals.

7. Lyndon Institute has always served the town of Lyndon and neighboring communities as a high school and will continue to do so. At present it prepares for college, technical, and professional schools while it keeps in mind the special needs of individual students, and gives opportunities for the appreciation of generous and comfortable living.

8. Vermont Dummer Academy gives education, culture, and interest from within.

9. Governor Dummer Academy. "No pupil is allowed to fail." College preparatory by a mastery of Latin and a few

other subjects. The first private boarding school for boys in America.

10. Wilbraham Academy has stood and now stands for individual guidance and personalized work. "When education helps an individual to discover his own powers and limitations, and shows him how to get out of his heredity its largest and best possibilities, it will fulfill its real function."

11. Moses Brown School. "Believing that a permanent institution for the guarded education of the rising generation will be promotive of their usefulness in society and the Honor of Truth, I have, for the furtherance of these desirable objects concluded to give a tract of land. . . ."

12. Bacon Academy was founded for the purpose of supporting and maintaining in the said first society of Colchester, . . . a school for the instruction of youth in reading and writing English, in arithmetic, mathematics, and the languages or such other branches of learning as said inhabitants shall direct." Bacon Academy now offers the college, civic, and home making courses which fit the pupils for a better and more efficient community life.

13. Norwich Academy aims to provide for all classes in the community an education adequate to all the demands of their future occupations. This is still the desire of its friends—to prepare leaders and masters in their professions; to improve and perfect the lower public schools; to give various courses of study according to the needs of the pupils.

Note 5.

Pictures of Original Buildings with Explanatory Sentences
(Planned and Executed by Class Members)

1. *Governor Dummer Academy—1763*
First Boys' Boarding School in America
2. *Phillips-Exeter Academy—1783*
To Furnish Preparation for College and Everyday Life
3. *Fryeburg Academy—1792*
It has produced Great Men, Influential in Maine and National History
4. *East Greenwich Academy—1801*
The Second Oldest Academy in Rhode Island
5. *Bacon Academy—1803*
Free Education for Colchester Youth
6. *Wilbraham Academy—1817*
Individual Guidance; Personalized Work
7. *Burr and Burton Seminary—1833*
To Encourage Education for Boys and Girls
8. *St. Johnsbury Academy—1842*
To Maintain Mental Discipline for Boys and Girls
9. *Norwich Free Academy—1854*
Endowed by Fifty Citizens of Norwich
10. *Vermont Academy—1876*
Free Education for Boys and Girls

Note 6.

*Bibliography*I. *State Authorities*

- State Commissioner of Education, Augusta, Maine.
- State Commissioner of Education, Concord, New Hampshire.
- State Commissioner of Education, Montpelier, Vermont.
- State Commissioner of Education, Boston, Massachusetts.
- State Commissioner of Education, Providence, Rhode Island.
- State Commissioner of Education, Hartford, Connecticut.

II. *Academy Authorities*

- Headmaster, Fryeburg Academy, Fryeburg, Maine.
- Headmaster, Abbott Academy, Farmington, Maine.
- Headmaster, Phillips-Exeter Academy, Exeter, New Hampshire.
- Headmaster, Appleton Academy, New Ipswich, New Hampshire.
- Headmaster, Burr and Burton Seminary, Manchester, Vermont.
- Headmaster, Bellows Free Academy, St. Albans, Vermont.
- Headmaster, Leland and Gray Seminary, Townshend, Vermont.

Headmaster, Lyndon Institute, Lyndon Center, Vermont.
 Headmaster, McIndoes Academy, McIndoes Falls, Vermont.
 Headmaster, Peacham Academy, Peacham, Vermont.
 Headmaster, St. Johnsbury Academy, St. Johnsbury, Vermont.
 Headmaster, Thetford Academy, Thetford, Vermont.
 Headmaster, Vermont Academy, Saxtons River, Vermont.
 Headmaster, Governor Dummer Academy, South Byfield, Mass.
 Headmaster, Wilbraham Academy, Wilbraham, Massachusetts.
 Headmaster, Moses Brown School, Providence, Rhode Island.
 Headmaster, East Greenwich Academy, East Greenwich, Rhode Island.
 Headmaster, Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut.

III. *Publications of State Educational Offices.*

IV. *Publications of Academies.*

Catalogues, Yearbooks, Pamphlets, Letters.

V. *State, County, and Town Histories.*

VI. *Two Unpublished Monographs*

L. C. Cobb, "The Rise of the Academy in New York State, and Its Mergence Into the Present Educational System."

O. B. Griffin, "The Evolution of the Connecticut State School System."

¹ Formerly of Bacon Academy, Colchester, Conn.

Determinisms — Geographic, Racial, and Cultural

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For ages men have discussed the importance of the geographic environment in molding the physical and mental characteristics of human beings. Among the great thinkers of the ancient world who believed that conditions of soil and climate exert a preponderating influence upon men, Herodotus and Thucydides figure prominently. The former wrote particularly of Egypt, while the latter elucidated a theory of geographic determinism regarding Greece.

Later writers concerned with the problem of the influence of the natural environment upon man include Bodin, Montesquieu, Lamarck, Herder, Ritter, Turgot, Holbach, Buckle, Ratzel, the two Darwins and, in our own time, Semple and Huntington. Ratzel's *Anthropogeographie* is a classic in the field, as is also Buckle's *Introduction to the History of Civilization in England*. Two of those whose names have just been listed took the negative side of the argument, however. Both Holbach and Turgot believed that there was no constant association of a given type of civilization with a given type of geographic environment. While both would doubtless have conceded that soil and climate must in some measure be favorable before a civilization can develop, they held that "similar civilizations flourish in dissimilar environments and dissimilar civilizations in similar environments."¹

Perhaps the most eloquent apostle of geographic predestination was Henry Thomas Buckle, previously mentioned, who devoted many years to the writing of a work, the so-called *History of Civilization in England*. A voluminous *Introduction*,² however,

was all that had been completed at his death, which occurred about the time of the opening of our Civil War.

The English, this persevering Briton tells us, have become what they are because of their mild climate, their fertile soil, and their proximity to the sea. The climate, argues Buckle, is such as to favor long-continued bodily and mental effort, the soil permits a surpassing excellence in agricultural products and live-stock, while the sea has been at once a provider of food, a bulwark against foreign invasion, and a highway of commerce. The presence of vast deposits of coal and iron have made it possible for England to become a foremost manufacturing nation.

Rather lucidly Buckle portrays the similarity of natural conditions under which the British and the Japanese live. These two insular peoples at opposite ends of Eurasia, notwithstanding the difference of race and the lack of contact through the earlier centuries of their history, have developed in somewhat comparable settings a train of surprising likenesses. In fact, Japan is often called "the Britain of Asia."

On the other hand, such countries as China and India, labor under great handicaps. Their vastness and comparative isolation are hampering factors. Buckle believes that in India, in particular, the natural environment is such that man is stunned and tends to become hopeless. Desert and jungle, venomous serpent and predatory beast, withering heat and devastating storm—all combine to bring man to the conclusion that human effort is likely to eventuate in futility. In such a country the development of a phil-

osophy of fatalism is rendered easy.

So, Buckle explains, Arabia has made the Arab, the Arctic has made the Eskimo, etc. The early development of civilization in the Mediterranean area and in Mesopotamia is held to be the result of favoring geographic conditions. Also, the relatively high level attained by Mayan, Aztec, Incan, and other aboriginal cultures of the American continent, is similarly accounted for.

In connection with the contentions of such geographic determinists as Buckle, it is interesting to note the belief in the prepotency of the influence of the natural environment upon man on the part of a present-day psychologist, Carl Gustav Jung. He says:

In the air and soil of a country there is an *x* and a *y* which slowly permeate man and mold him to the type of the aboriginal inhabitants, even to the point of slightly remodeling his features.³

One of our most distinguished anthropologists, Franz Boas, considers that he has discovered significant bodily changes in the children of immigrants to the United States.⁴

It may be said that man in common with other living things, is highly susceptible to his physical surroundings. In shaping bodily and mental attributes, however, geographic environment is only a single factor. Even among the most primitive tribes, portions of the physical surroundings are the results of human handiwork. As man advances in culture, it becomes increasingly evident that he is a creator, as well as a creature, of environment.

Then, partly from biological causes and partly from the cumulative effects of the social heritage, no two generations are ever alike. Life is not being; it is a process of becoming. Climate and soil are necessary to human existence, but they do not dominate the situation entirely.

Elizabethan England was vastly different from England under the Commonwealth, yet the life span of John Milton touched both eras—the Elizabethan and the Cromwellian. The Englands that have been, differ from the England that is and from the Englands that are to be.

For a time the Russian geographic setting favored the growth of autocracy as manifested under the rule of the Czars; today it favors the super-iconoclastic movement, known as Bolshevism. In the days of the Turkish conquests, Christian youth, when under the influence of Christendom, generally continued as Christians of some sort. Under the tutelage of Turkish conquerors, they not infrequently became Janizaries—shock troops of the sultans.

Opposed to the "environmentalists" are those who attempt to explain human progress in terms of "blood" or "race." Gobineau,⁵ Chamberlain,⁶ Stoddard,⁷ and Grant⁸ have figured prominently in this

regard and have contributed to the rise of the cult of "Nordicism."

The Nordacists, however, have some difficulty in explaining why the so-called Nordic peoples, with all their boasted superiority, were among the last of Europeans to attain that level of culture known as civilization—a level attained largely through the process of borrowing from Mediterraneans.

There is much to ponder in a story told of Disraeli upon an occasion when his temper had been tried by a Parliament member's sneering remark concerning Jews. The great prime minister is supposed to have replied substantially as follows:

When your ancestors were dwelling in huts along the banks of the Rhine and the Thames, mine were princes in the palace of Solomon.

The Nordacists, as Dorsey points out in *Whither Mankind*, have "discovered" stray "Nordics," such as Socrates, Columbus, and even Jesus. Thus, by rationalization the Nordacists seek to save face. The acceptance of such rationalizations as truth helps to feed the flames of anti-Semitism and the like.

In thinking about the races, so-called, it is well to remember that a great intermingling of stocks has taken place and that a people is sometimes named for the language employed or for the religion professed. A Jew, for example, may be a Slav, just like millions of other Russians. The Turk is a Turk—when a Moslem. When a Christian, he is an Armenian, a Syrian, a Greek, or something similar. The prominent nose of the "Turk" witnesses to the fact that the blood of the old Mongolian invaders is thin in the land of Kemal. In the main, Turks of today are descendants of those peoples who from time immemorial have inhabited the Anatolian peninsula. Even the American "Negro" is often a Scotch-Irish Arab!

It is necessary to remind ourselves that man minus his social heritage is feral man. The most favorable geographic environment, even when coupled with the finest type of biological heritage, would be powerless, without the fostering care of those in possession of culture, to bring any of us to the full mental stature of human beings. Could we as individuals have existed in isolation, until now, we would be only gibbering, ape-like creatures—feral folk, fearsome and grotesque.

It is not "in the blood," neither is it "in the air," to be Presbyterians, or Roman Catholics, or Democrats, or Americans.

Ultimately, man is socially created.

We cannot, then, fully explain human progress either in terms of geographic environment or of biological heredity. Both factors together do not explain it. The social, or cultural heritage is to be reckoned with.⁹ L. L. Bernard writes: "Psychologists

and sociologists are inclined to attribute differences in intelligence among the races more to cultural transmission, or social heredity, than to chromosomal transmission, or biological heredity."¹⁰ Carr-Saunders believes that the "course of history is, in the main, dependent upon changes in tradition. . . ."¹¹

The world has not as yet produced a symmetrical culture. It is easy enough for us to see the defects in other cultures, but we have difficulty in perceiving the shortcomings in our own. Thus, we are likely to consider the American Indian's failure to invent the wheel as an evidence of racial inferiority. Yet, the indigenous people of Mexico, Central America, and Peru attained a degree of culture which may be termed "civilization." Agriculture, architecture, and astronomy were well advanced. In the Andes the Incas constructed a highway hundreds of miles long, bridging canyons and even tunneling mountains. Nevertheless, no wheel was used in this construction, and, until after the coming of Pizarro, no wheel rolled over that marvelous highway. Pedestrians and pack animals—llamas—solely traversed its winding course.

We live in a world of ideas and ideals. The use which we make of our material resources is largely determined by our particular ideas and ideals. In ancient Egypt and Mesopotamia, men sought assiduously to prepare for life beyond the grave. So they achieved surpassing skill in the making of temples and other adjuncts of divine worship. Mayas, Aztecs, and Incas, on our side of the Atlantic, were likewise largely motivated by ritualistic religious

ideals. Temples, pyramids, and statuary resulted, therefore, much as in the Old World.

Man ever seeks to remold the world "nearer to the heart's desire." He stresses those things which engage his interest. The present is an age demanding mechanical inventions; we have them, partly because man's ingenuity is exercised in that direction.

Both geographic environment and biological heredity are important. However—"Mental attitudes play a crucial part in social progress. . . . In the last analysis it would seem that progress, both personal and social, is a matter of change of attitudes."¹²

¹ "Environmentalism," *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, V (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931), 561 ff.

² Henry Thomas Buckle, *Introduction to the History of Civilization in England*. (New York and London: D. Appleton and Company, 1891).

³ Carl Gustav Jung, "Your Negroid and Indian Behavior," *The Forum*, LXXX (April, 1930), 197.

⁴ Franz Boas, "Changes in Bodily Form of Descendants of Immigrants," *Anthropological Papers*, I (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1911).

⁵ Count Joseph A. de Gobineau, *The Inequality of the Human Races* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1915).

⁶ Houston-Stewart Chamberlain, *Foundations of the Nineteenth Century* (London and New York: John Lane, 1912).

⁷ Theodore Lothrop Stoddard, *The Rising Tide of Color* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1927).

⁸ Madison Grant, *The Passing of a Great Race* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1916).

⁹ Robert M. Bear, *The Social Functions of Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937), Chapter I.

¹⁰ Luther Lee Bernard, *Introduction to Social Psychology* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1926), p. 231.

¹¹ Alexander M. Carr-Saunders, *The Population Problem* (Oxford: The Clarendon Press, 1922), p. 482.

¹² Joyce O. Hertzler, *Social Progress* (New York: The Century Company, 1928) pp. 105-106.

The Value of United States History from the Students' Viewpoint

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For several years at the beginning of a semester, I have heard students remark, "I think history is an interesting subject; I like it better than any other course." Others have said, "I do not like history at all. Why should it be required? It is so dry and hard to remember." Because of these comments, I decided to have the students answer a questionnaire in order to discover, if possible, why some of them like history and others do not. I felt that their reactions would be helpful to me as a teacher of history.

Last semester there were over 300 pupils in our

schools taking United States history. I had 141 pupils in my classes. The course includes the study of our country from the close of the Civil War to the present time. When these students entered my classes they all had studied the first-semester United States history under another teacher; thus I was not acquainted with them. On Friday of the second week, without discussion beforehand, I gave out the questionnaire. They were asked to comment freely and sincerely; I informed the students that they would not have to sign their names.

These were the questions:

1. Do you like the style and subject matter of the textbook?
2. Are the assignments satisfactory?
3. How do you like the class-period procedure?
4. Do you enjoy the study of United States history?

The students' answers were varied and interesting; and I have every reason to believe that they were frank and honest in their replies. That is why I consider them of value.

The Textbook

Tabulating the returns on the first question, there were forty-seven pupils who stated that they approved of the text, while thirty-five said they opposed it. The others did not definitely criticize or approve it. The text used was C. A. and M. R. Beard, *History of the United States* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1935).

The favorable comments on the first question included the following:

"The style of the textbook cannot be beaten."

"The text is easy to read and understand."

"Our textbook presents the ideas wonderfully well, and it is very easy to understand."

"The textbook is written like a story book and is easy to read and understand."

"The style of the book is excellent for it does not go deeply into detail but emphasizes the most important events."

"The textbook on the whole is as good as any I have read in the library."

"Our textbook brings out clearly his idea of the history of the United States; and it is largely due to the style of the book that I am interested."

"Beard's text is not a tiresome book; it tells things more in story form. It doesn't give the military or political side of the question so much as it does the social and industrial side, thereby making it more interesting for girls."

"I like the textbook because of its exact statements, the way it gives importance to important events and dwells briefly on the lesser ones."

Some of the criticisms on the first question follow:

"I do not think the text explains things clearly."

"I don't like the book; it doesn't tell you enough."

"Beard has good materials, but there should be more illustrations."

"I think the textbook could be made over. For example, have all biographies of generals, presidents, etc., in one section; all the wars and battles in another, etc. The way the texts are written now, we have to read so much stuff

which isn't of any value at all."

"I think our text is one of the driest and most uninteresting history books printed."

"Beard's text is a little too brief for students who have little or no knowledge of history."

"It is quite brief and lacks detail in some important places, but all textbooks have their shortcomings."

"I think the book could give a few more of the side-lights of history: humorous stories, etc., to stimulate our interest."

The above quotations are rather enlightening. They express the students' reactions to the text. Perhaps their conclusions would check quite favorably with results from a group of teachers if they were asked to comment on a similar question.

Classroom Procedure

It might be well to describe our history equipment. In addition to the basic text used in the course, C. A. and M. R. Beard, *History of the United States*, each student has the privilege of using a copy of D. S. Muzzey, *United States History* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1933). All the history rooms have sufficient books so that the laboratory method can be employed. Each teacher has several copies of some of the best secondary textbooks, such as Fish, Fite, Guitteau, Forman, Elson, Bassett, and Hamm, Bourne and Benton. This system gives the students a splendid opportunity to browse and become familiar with the various authors.

Many interesting replies came on the questions of daily assignments and classroom procedure. Almost an equal number favored and opposed oral reports. A majority of the students did not like to keep notebooks, and about half of the pupils thought that the assignments were too long. There was a very large majority who said that they liked the class-period procedure. Here are some of the favorable comments:

"I like the way the teacher explains and elaborates the material given in the textbook."

"The recitation procedure is fine. If we study the lesson we should know it, but in case we don't, the teacher explains it in such a way that if we never look at our books we can still pass this course provided we pay attention in class."

"History has always seemed to be, well not exactly a dead subject, but rather tiresome to me. This year a new interest seems to have been born. I think it is because of the manner in which the material is presented, and the free way of being able to recite in class."

"I like this semester of history because it doesn't seem so bookish. At class time you bring in so many interesting things we haven't read. You don't follow the book so closely as the other history teachers."

"I like the recitations and your method of keeping the textbook at arm's length."

"I think the type of assignments we have had have been sensible. They are long enough to make you work but not too long so that you cannot finish them."

"Many teachers have a lot to do with our likes and dislikes of history. I do not like the outside reading some teachers assign for there is always home work attached to it."

"The assignments are hard, but I like them anyway."

"This semester I have learned more history than before. After the pupil explains what he knows about the subject, you add a little more and it makes everything clear. By having us write answers to questions it makes me remember them better and by putting them in our notebook they come in handy for review."

"Teaching history in broad movements is much easier than trying to take each incident as it comes. History seems more vital because you have helped us to see that these incidents of long ago are causes of today's conditions."

Here are some of the unfavorable comments:

"The recitation could be improved by letting the pupils talk more on the subjects."

"I can't say that I dislike history, but perhaps if the assignments gave us more room to be original we would like history better."

"The class period is too much of a routine and is not animated enough."

"I would like to have more arguments in class."

"The recitation process can be changed a good deal. Why should a teacher use the lecture method in teaching? Engage with the students in arguments; allow them to talk more. The assignments are given in such a way as to make them appear harder than they really are."

"Recitations could be made more pleasant and consequently more profitable by the introduction of a free class discussion or by spell-downs or by team debates."

"I would rather have more class discussion and reports than written work."

"I believe in tests every week instead of a great deal of written class work."

"A long assignment does not allow one to learn history thoroughly. History is fascinating and interesting, but you will soon tire of it if you have to do too much of it."

"I think the material would soak in better if the students had more questions put to them."

These are typical replies. Most teachers realize how important assignments and classroom procedures are;

they constitute determining factors in successful teaching. To be thoroughly familiar with one's subject is one thing, but to be able to impart that knowledge and to put it across to the students is quite a different matter. It is within the teacher's power to destroy or to kindle a liking for a subject.

Enjoying the Study of History

In answering the last question, seventy-three of the one hundred and forty-one stated that they liked the subject, fifty-three said that they did not enjoy it, and fifteen gave indefinite answers.

Some of the favorable comments were:

"I like history of the United States because I am always interested in the way that people react to certain measures or movements. In history there is a very good opportunity to study human nature."

"United States history is the most interesting kind of history we have. It is concerned with the country in which we live. We should be interested in those who lived before us and what the men and women did, thereby making it possible for us to have the many conveniences today."

"I like to study United States history because the material is interesting, and useful in our daily life."

"I like the study of United States history because it will be helpful to me in library work which I am planning to follow in college."

"This history seems so closely related to what is going on now that I think it is the most interesting subject that I study."

"History is more interesting than most other subjects. There is less memory work and more discussion."

"When class discussion is going well I like putting in my nickel's worth."

Some of the unfavorable comments were:

"I have not only disliked United States history but any other kind because it has always seemed so dry cut. Another reason I do not like it is because you are required to take it."

"Except for the few who gain their livelihood by teaching history courses, it has little dollar and cents value."

"There are too many things to remember—all the presidents, elections, and dates."

"History to me is no more than the learning of dates, places, people, etc., and we learned all that in the grade school, maybe not so thoroughly but enough."

"I do not like to study United States history. I like to sit down and read history."

"I have no particular like or dislike for

American history although I think it deals too much with the political issues and not enough with economic and social life of the people."

"The reason I do not like history is because of the past years spent in its study. We used to be assigned so many pages and after reading them were given a test. I am beginning to like history better because there is a variety of ways of teaching it. The teachers are more learned and can put history across in an interesting way."

"I think the real reason I do not like to study United States history is because it is repeated so often. In the lower grades we were always studying about Columbus and the Pilgrims. In the eighth grade we made a detailed study of the United States from the time of its discovery to the present."

"History is a fine subject after you get into it, but I would never have taken it if it were not required. It was made very hard because of the way in which it was taught at grade school."

"I began to study United States history in the third grade. I had it again in the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. In the third year of high school history was one of my courses. A system like that is a kill or cure. With me it killed my interest. When I first read how the wicked Indians scalped the heroic pioneers, and what a good little boy George Washington was, I was thrilled. The next time I was bored. When I was in the sixth grade I found out that the cherry tree story was a fable. I think it is a mistake to waste time in teaching young people

anything that must later be unlearned."

"I was disillusioned about history while taking it during grade school. It was taught in such a way that it was as dull and uninteresting as anyone can imagine. At every recitation a certain row would be expected to recite and others did not participate until their turns came. This was not helpful to the pupil. High school history is different and much more interesting, but if it had not been required I would not have chosen it as a subject due to the bad effect of my previous history classes."

The above quotations express quite clearly what the students want in a history course. As teachers, it is our problem to find the proper ways for stimulating students' interest in the subject. While it may be impossible for every pupil to enjoy the study of history, a large majority would like it if the subject were presented in an intelligent way.

It is true that often in grade school, history is made unattractive through unimaginative teaching and the students conceive a dislike for it which they carry into high school. Pupils do not care for textbook discussions of facts, dates, and minor events. Of course there has to be a certain amount of routine and drill, but history must be taught in a broader manner than through mere memory work. Emphasis should be placed on the human element. Our newer histories stress the social and economic life of the people almost as much as the political. Live discussions and thought-provoking arguments, in which the relationship of the past to the present can be shown, should be developed. The responsibility rests with the teacher.

News and Comment

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SCHOOL OF THE AIR

The American School of the Air of the Columbia Broadcasting System began its ninth season on October 18 with the cooperation of the National Education Association, the Progressive Education Association, the National Council of Teachers of English, the National Council of Teachers of Geography, the National Vocational Guidance Association, and Junior Programs.

The American School of the Air will be heard on each school day until May 6, from 2:30 to 3 o'clock each afternoon, New York time. The NEA is sponsoring the Monday programs for the first

thirteen weeks. These programs dramatize and comment upon current events, under the title, "Exits and Entrances." Shepard Stone of the *New York Times* is the commentator. The Monday programs for the last thirteen weeks will be given in conjunction with the Progressive Education Association, under the title, "Human Relations Forum." These will take the form of dramalogues and discussions among high-school students.

On Wednesdays "The Hamilton Family" will continue their travels. These dramatized geography lessons will be prepared by Dr. Ellsworth Huntington of Yale University, with the assistance of the National Council of Teachers of Geography.

DEPRESSION AFTERMATH

The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science for September 1937 presents a series of papers on the "revival of depressed industries, describing the status of selected industries, with special reference to efforts toward recovery and expansion."

A diagnosis of factors contributing to the waxing and waning of the business cycle is given in the August 1937 number of *Fortune*. The editors were interested in views expressed on the subject by Professors George F. Warren and Frank A. Pearson of Cornell University and asked them to explain "The Building Cycle" in relation to business in general. The resultant article in the August issue, accompanied by many charts, presents their principles and shows the connection between building activity and general business activity. Professors Warren and Pearson hazard the prediction that "building activity will probably increase until about 1943. So doing, it will make the nation prosperous."

A longer view is taken by David Cushman Coyle in his article in *Harpers* for October 1937, called "Balance What Budget?" Mr. Coyle declares that "the time of national success or failure is close at hand" and demands a balance not of the financial budget but of an economic budget. Such a budget can be balanced, in his opinion, only by meeting the national drain of human erosion and of the erosion of natural resources.

UNITED STATES, 1937

Many other aspects of national affairs which observers thoughtfully discuss in the autumn magazines are part of the depression's aftermath. In *Foreign Affairs* for October 1937, Frank C. Hanighen surveys the "Foreign Political Movements in the United States," and describes the strength and purposes of Communist, Fascist, and Nazi organizations in this country.

Alvin Johnson, in the autumn number of the *Yale Review*, comments on "The Labor Crisis." He declares that, if peace is to reign in industry, the traditional discipline by a dictatorship of management must be replaced by the discipline of consent. Labor today is able actively to resent the dictatorship of management in part because it now may count upon nation-wide relief if necessary, upon the Social Security Act, and upon other protections of the New Deal. "We shall not have an adequate machinery for industrial peace until our captains of industry develop the political wisdom to inquire not what organization and what leaders are most friendly to capital, but what organization and leaders are the most authentic bearers of the workers' consent." The New Deal, he believes, has contributed not a little toward bringing about "an order reconciling indus-

trial efficiency with the independence and dignity of the working citizen in a true democracy."

An article that has attracted wide attention was written by former President Hoover on "The Crisis and the Political Parties" for *The Atlantic Monthly* of September 1937. Mr. Hoover makes a powerful and moving plea for personal liberty, "possibly the greatest issue of one hundred and sixty years." Both major parties, he declares, have obscured that issue. He sees a fatal threat to political liberty and social freedom in methods used at home and abroad to provide economic security. He points out the dangers to liberty in a planned economy and in "the whole gamut of New Deal philosophy." He spares neither Democrat nor Republican, employer nor employee, national government nor local. His passionate analysis closes with a call to the Republican Party to hold a national meeting in 1938 to draw up a declaration of the rights and responsibilities of free men.

Professor C. H. McIlwain of Harvard University, in a lengthy review of Walter Lippmann's new book, *The Good Society*, has much to say which is a reminder of President Hoover's stirring defense of freedom. Professor McIlwain's review appeared in the October 1937 issue of *Foreign Affairs*, under the title, "The Reconstruction of Liberalism."

A different view is taken by Harold J. Laski in his essay on "A Formula for Conservatives" which appeared in *Harpers* for September 1937. His interpretation of recent events in our history shows less fear of danger to freedom. But he does point to the need for a well-defined body of policies in place of opportunism in government. A similar thought was expressed by H. G. Wells when he was here on a visit several years ago.

WHAT DO WE SPEND OUR MONEY FOR?

Professor Edward L. Thorndike offers a tentative answer to this question in the *Scientific Monthly* for September 1937. After examining the question in the light of data assembled by a small group of competent people, he concludes with these probable allotments of time, and therefore money:

Adults of the United States spend daily in sixteen waking hours:

- 30% for entertainment
- 25% for sustenance and perpetuation
- 20% for approval and for companionship and affection
- 15% for security and for the welfare of others
- 10% for various other wants.

THE NEBRASKA EXPERIMENT

The Congressional Digest for August-September 1937 devotes most of the issue to "The Unicameral System of Legislation." The discussion is designed

for use in classrooms. Not only is the Nebraska experiment presented, but also there are described the legislative bodies of the United States, Great Britain, and other countries and the unicameral system in use in other lands. A reading list is appended, and a series of answers, pro and con, are given to the question, "Should the states adopt the unicameral system of legislation?"

THE SINO-JAPANESE CLASH

Among the magazines one finds widespread discussion of the Far Eastern situation. The October 1937 number of *Asia* is largely concerned with this subject. At the outset the editors present a digest of significant articles on the Chinese-Japanese problem since the World War. Then Pearl S. Buck, Edgar Snow, William Henry Chamberlin, and others examine various aspects of the problem now. *Asia* will carry the discussion further in the November issue.

In *Foreign Affairs* for October 1937, Nathaniel Pfeffer writes on "The Price of Japanese Imperialism" and Walter H. Mallory on "Japan Attacks: China Resists." Mr. Pfeffer doubts that Japan can permanently achieve and hold her objective. He discusses his reasons at length in the September 1937 number of *Harpers* in the article, "Japan Counts the Cost."

The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science for September 1937 contains a supplement on "Oriental Affairs," which surveys recent developments in Japan and China, the relations of China and Russia, and the effect of the Far Eastern situation upon American trade.

ANNIVERSARY OF THE CONSTITUTION

Last January, under "News and Comment" in *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, an account was given of the plans of the United States Constitutional Sesquicentennial Commission for the celebration of the one hundred fiftieth anniversary of the Constitution of the United States. The celebration is now well under way in many parts of the nation and will continue until April 30, 1939. Philadelphia, last September, participated in a great celebration which continued for more than a week. Schools already have launched programs, and a survey of what they are doing is given in *Education* for September 1937 in the article by H. E. Wagner on "Celebrating the Sesquicentennial of the Constitution in the Schools." The United States Constitutional Commission has prepared a large quantity of useful material: facsimiles of the Constitution, photographs of signers, posters, souvenir programs, pageants, cut-outs, and so forth. A list of this material will be sent upon application to Director-General Sol Bloom, United States Constitutional Commission, House Office Building, Washington, D.C.

"THE BEAR THAT SHOOTS LIKE A MAN"

Under that title in the August 1937 number, *Fortune* presents the sixth and last article of the series on Background of War, a series which has been running since last March. This study of Russia, however, is followed by what may be called a supplement in the September issue called the "Background of Peace." It is an article by Secretary Hull which sets forth his views of the foreign policy of the United States.

IS THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN RETREAT?

Kingsley Martin, editor of the British weekly *New Statesman and Nation*, studies this question in the autumn number of the *Yale Review*. He concludes that the events of the 1930's show that "it was perhaps optimistic ever to hope that capitalistic states organized as sovereign units, each constructed to defend and extend the economic interests of its own nationals, could have pooled their forces and sought peace by cooperating in a genuine League of Nations. But if that is so, it is only another way of saying that the civilization we know is unlikely to last for many more years."

PEKING MAN

The noted anthropologist, Teilhard de Chardin, describes Peking Man, "Our Most Ape-Like Relative," in *Natural History* for September 1937. Excavations, he indicates, have now just begun to reach the most promising levels at the site about thirty miles south of Peiping. Eight illustrations accompany his brief article.

THE INFORMATIVE CONTENT OF EDUCATION

As president of Section L, Educational Science, of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, Mr. H. G. Wells delivered a provocative address at Nottingham on September 2 on "The Informative Content of Education." He asked, "What are we telling young people directly about the world in which they are to live? . . . What is the framework of conceptions about reality and about obligations into which the rest of their mental existence will have to be fitted?" Mr. Wells states his views boldly and definitely. The flavor of his remarks is shown in these closing words: "But we are living in a world in which a battleship costs £8,000,000, in which we can raise an extra 400 million [pounds] for armaments with only a slight Stock Exchange qualm, and which has seen the Zeppelin, the radio, the bombing aeroplane come completely out of nothing since 1900. And our schools are drooling along very much as they were drooling along thirty-seven years ago." The address of Mr. Wells is printed in *School and Society* for September 4, 1937.

PROGRESSIVE METHODS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

In its October 1937 number, *The Atlantic Monthly* began a series of articles on progressive methods in secondary education. The first essay, "The Learning Process," is contributed by Headmistress Katharine Taylor of the Shady Hill School of Cambridge, founded there about twenty years ago by a group of Harvard professors. The account of methods in the Shady Hill School for replacing verbal learning by vital learning deserves thoughtful consideration by all teachers.

EDUCATION IN ACCIDENT PREVENTION

The dangers to life which confront everyone on the highways of the nation increase interest in ways for reducing them. *The Journal of Educational Sociology* for September 1937 is a special number on the subject of accident prevention through education. Among the topics discussed are:

The application of psychological methods to safety education.

Safety education as the mental hygienist sees it.

Safety programs in the Cleveland and Baltimore school systems.

SOCIAL STUDIES

The September, 1937, issue of *Education* is the annual social studies number of that magazine. Under the editorship of Professor Daniel C. Knowlton of New York University this issue discusses such matters as the relation of history to other social studies, trends in history teaching, ways for celebrating the birthday of the Constitution, and various aspects of classroom teaching.

"JUNIOR SCHOLASTIC"

Beginning with this school year *Scholastic* publishes *Junior Scholastic* for junior high school classes in English and Social Studies, paralleling *Scholastic* for senior high school classes. The first issue dealt with "Invention and Discovery" and succeeding issues will take up such subjects as transportation by water, highway, railroad, and air, and communication by speech, writing, and radio. Both magazines will continue to be published by Scholastic Publications, 250 E. 43 Street, New York.

"DRAKE THE PIRATE"

Drake the Pirate is a 16 mm. film distributed by Walter O. Gutlohn, Inc., 35 West 45 Street, New York. It shows the career of Sir Francis Drake and includes authentic speeches by Drake and Queen Elizabeth.

HUMAN EROSION

In *Consumers' Guide* for June 14, 1937, the article on "Food Patterns" explores the food-buying habits of workers in all parts of the country and throws "the spotlight on the human erosion that grows out of low incomes and the handicaps such incomes impose."

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The annual fall convention of the Council will be held at the Jefferson Hotel in St. Louis on November 26 and 27. Among the subjects for discussion are teacher training, stimulating interest and learning, testing, and evaluating the progressive schools experiment. Many prominent leaders in the field of social studies will take part in the conference.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

GENERAL

Roosevelt to Roosevelt: The United States in the Twentieth Century. By Dwight Lowell Dumond. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1937. Pp. 585. \$3.50.

In this volume Professor Dumond interprets an important period in the history of the United States from the point of view of a liberal. He is very frank in stating that "research will change much of what is here written down. The author, however, has completed a significant study of a complex period, difficult to evaluate because of its proximity.

This study begins with a survey of the social, political, and economic life at the turn of the century. It continues with a careful analysis of the progressive

movement in all of its phases and with all of its opposing forces up to the time of the World War. A very interesting chapter deals with the territorial policies incident to expansion beyond the continental limits.

In his treatment of the war the author points out what some have suspected, "that in winning the war we lost the peace, and the peace—a lasting enduring peace of justice for all peoples—was the reason for our appeal to arms." The national regimentation during the war period, the financial responsibilities which it entailed, the peace settlement, the problem of debts and reparations, and certain reactionary tendencies which developed in our social and economic life are treated in a careful fashion.

The period of the Twenties is shown as one in which there was none of the masterful leadership characterizing the time of Roosevelt and Wilson. The Republican party seemed unable to develop any policy adequate to meet the problems of the farmer and the laborer. Consequently when the crash of 1929 came, the absence of leadership soon gave rise to many social and economic panaceas which ranged all the way from Technocracy to the Share the Wealth program.

The last part of the book deals with the attempt to bring about recovery and reform, and it is here that the author presents an excellent discussion of such topics as the currency policy of the Roosevelt Administration, the relief question, the agricultural program, the NRA, the social security plan, and the administration's foreign policy. A final chapter deals with the election of 1936.

One can not call attention to the many excellent features of this volume within the limits of a brief review, but it should be noted that the author has been very careful in his analysis of the influence of the Supreme Court; also that although his emphasis is on social history, the work is well-rounded. The bibliography is excellent and the index is entirely adequate. Even though the book has been designed for a college text, many parts of it will be found useful by the teacher in the secondary school.

WALTER H. MOHR

George School

Newtown, Pennsylvania

Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies: a Social Process Approach. (Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part XIII.) By Leon C. Marshall and Rachel Marshall Goetz. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936. Pp. xvii, 252. \$1.75.

The senior author, who is now vice-chairman of the National Labor Board, has shown an interest in the educational aspects of the social studies for almost twenty years. On at least one occasion, while chairman of the department of economics at the University of Chicago, he offered a course for teachers dealing with the social studies curriculum. The present volume is an elaboration of ideas previously expressed by him on many occasions in lectures and writings.

The author's main contribution to curriculum construction is the proposal to group "our multifarious human activities into a small number of great processes (or groups of fundamental activities) which are common to all types of society" (p. 12). The main processes in the classification suggested by the authors, and labelled by them as "frankly opportunistic," is as follows (p. 15): (1) adjustment with the external physical world; (2) biological continuance and conservation; (3) guidance of human motivation and aspiration; (4) development and operation of

the agencies of social organization; (5) securing and directing cultural continuance and cultural change; (6) molding of personality. A chapter is devoted to each of the foregoing processes.

Each process falls into a number of fundamental activities or aspects, which are subdivided into aspects or "tasks." For example, the process of adjustment with the external physical world (No. 1 above) falls into three main divisions; namely: (a) learning to manipulate natural forces; (b) organizing to manipulate these forces—the economic order; (c) distribution of the population over the physical and cultural areas of the earth. These in turn fall into subdivisions. For instance, the second—the economic order—is subdivided into the following tasks (see pages 68-79): (1) what goods shall be produced and in what quantities; (2) how available resources are apportioned; (3) how the product is shared; (4) how balance between population and resources is achieved; (5) organizing to achieve economic ends; (6) economic activities and group standards. Around such subdivisions related subject matter and appropriate activities are to be gathered for teaching purposes.

Administrators and supervisors as well as all who are concerned with the curriculum in the social studies will find this book thought-provoking. Teachers will discover that the volume, like so many of the volumes in the report of the Commission on the Social Studies, is well worth reading, but of little practical assistance in solving the everyday problems of the classroom.

HOWARD C. HILL

The University of Chicago
Chicago, Illinois

The History of the Haymarket Affair. By Henry Daird. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1936. Pp. xii, 579. Illustrated. \$4.00.

There has been much difficulty in writing the real history of class warfare. Partisan bitterness and fanatic zeal, desperately in earnest, have done so much to cloud judgment and substitute emotion for reason. No episode in American history has demonstrated this difficulty more clearly than the Haymarket incident. Nor does this careful monograph avoid the pitfalls, at least the shallow ones, of sympathy for the victims of injustice.

This book gives not only a complete and very vivid account of the Haymarket riot, and the arrest, conviction, and punishment of the alleged criminals, but it provides an interesting and valuable account of the development of the radical labor movement in America prior to 1886. The author makes a complete study using an extensive body of source material. He concludes that as far as evidence is concerned, the men convicted of the crime were innocent, the victims of a partial judge, a biased jury, but above all, of the prevailing mob spirit of the day.

Teachers will find this a convenient source for details regarding a colorful incident. They will also find much to give them a clearer insight into labor problems. At this time when labor disputes occupy such a prominent place in the news, the study gives a timely background which cannot fail to be enlightening.

ROY F. NICHOLS

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Society and Its Problems: An Introduction to the Principles of Sociology. By Grove Samuel Dow. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, Fourth Edition, 1936. Pp. 678. \$3.00.

A comprehensive and authoritative text in sociology should prove of inestimable value to those interested in the social sciences and present-day world problems and their background. In some respects, however, a treatise in sociology suffers from a "journalistic handicap" in that, to be authoritative it must be prepared to treat the very latest in social developments, nothing out of date sufficing. This present volume attempts to keep abreast of the latest in sociology in a thoroughly revised edition of the work as it originally appeared in 1922. In this manner the author attempts to present, in outline, what may be called the "constant" factors in his field, together with new data based on recent findings to link his work solidly to the present.

Advisedly, Mr. Dow opens his text with a definitive chapter on the nature of sociology. In this chapter he not only sets forth the various divisions within the field, but points out as well the relation which sociology bears to the social and natural sciences. The remainder of the work is divided into sections treating geographical, biological, and cultural factors, problems of population, groups and institutions, and social pathology. Under these and other main divisions he includes chapters dealing with the "minutia" of sociology, which treat of subjects as widely divergent as population trends and personality. A most gratifying aspect of the work is the inclusion, at the end of each chapter, of a selected bibliography pertinent to the particular subject at hand.

Certain of the chapters of the present volume are entirely new, others have been entirely rewritten with an eye to the latest data on the subject; and the work as a whole presents both a modern and substantially documented treatment of the field. The author seems constantly to bear in mind the difficulty of writing a "popular" text in a scientific subject. He seems admirably to have succeeded in keeping his work down to "concepts of one syllable." This necessitates, of course, a more superficial treatment of some sections than might be desired, but Mr. Dow has confined this limitation to such controversial topics as the American

Negro and Sex Mores, dealing at greater length with the more tangible material.

To those interested in social problems in a modern and complex society, whether from the point of view of student, teacher or mere layman, the present work should prove most useful in clarifying the basic ideas and providing suitable background for judgment.

RICHARD ATHERTON HUMPHREY

St. Paul School
Garden City, New York

The Texas Navy. By Jim Dan Hill. With a foreword by Theodore Roosevelt. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937. Pp. xv, 224. \$2.50.

That Texas ever had a navy is not common knowledge; less common still is an understanding of the significance of that navy in the struggle for Texan independence. Although this volume serves a useful purpose in advertising the fact that it did exist, it is primarily in regard to the second consideration that Dr. Hill has written. The resurrection has been well done. It is a doughty little fleet that once again sails the Gulf in his ably written pages. Accustomed to reading the dry and monotonous efforts of most modern historians, this reviewer was pleasantly surprised to find this work alive and full of vigor. From sources varied and often fragmentary in nature, the author has succeeded in giving us a well integrated account in a realistic style. He has met all the requirements of scholarship in the way of notes, references, and deliberative conclusions, and moreover, he has extracted life from the records to deal fairly with live men of the past.

If the Texans were to succeed in freeing themselves from Mexico, they needed at least a semi-efficient navy. That fact was not quite so obvious to a great many Texans of that day, especially Sam Houston, who was a greater menace to Texan warships than the Mexican navy. Because of the nature of the terrain between Mexico City and the Texan settlements, it was difficult for armies to use an overland route, and next to impossible to maintain a line of supplies. Sea connections were vital to any Mexican program of suppression. One of the first duties of the fleet, then, was to defend the coast and prevent soldiers and supplies from landing. The value of such efforts is well illustrated by the San Jacinto campaign. After Santa Anna's capture, his chief lieutenant, General Filisola, was forced to retire with a large force because the navy prevented him from securing reinforcements or supplies. A second duty of the sea forces was to foment and keep alive discontent in other parts of Mexico, notably Yucatan. To this end, at one time the entire fleet was rented to Yucatan for service against Mexico at eight thousand dollars a month. As the payments were usually in cash and on time, the Texas navy probably had its best days when working

for Yucatan. Ordinarily pay-days were few and far between, supplies were scarce, the ships were in need of repair; and the bickerings of politicians such as Houston, who doubted the necessity of maintaining a navy, caused numerous foolish orders to be issued and contradicted in turn. In fact, the navy fought its last battles for Texas with its entire personnel under indictment for piracy by their commander-in-chief, President Houston.

The picture of Sam Houston is not pleasing. The author feels that he had some "homespun virtues" as a frontier leader, but that he lacked ability as a military leader, and furthermore, that he was too much of a penny-pincher to be a successful executive at a time when Texas needed augmented forces to combat Mexico. Houston is generally pictured as being aggressive at San Jacinto; Dr. Hill says: "Houston did not win the San Jacinto victory; the Latin *siesta* habit lost it."

The position of the United States in regard to the whole situation is not clearly shown. Many references are made to the activities of the United States navy in the Gulf during the troubled times; the connections with New Orleans are treated frequently; allusions are made to the reactions of the American Department of State in certain instances. But after reading the volume no definite, coherent impression of the general policy pursued by the United States remains.

All notes and references are relegated to an appendix. There is an adequate index.

EDGAR B. CALE

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Teaching Purposes and Their Achievement. By L. J. Nuttall. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936. Pp. x, 290. \$1.80.

Dr. Nuttall has written a concise, yet comprehensive study of teaching techniques that may be a means of stimulating thinking in children.

In this book theory and practice are brought together. Theoretical outlines of educational procedures have been studied. These, in turn, have been related to the educational purposes to be achieved. They were tested in the classrooms for appropriate purposes to fit appropriate response situations. The techniques of teaching are based on a careful consideration of the psychology of learning. The author is considerate in not giving the reader a dose of difficult psychological terms.

Throughout the book there is expressed the important philosophy of education which urges the adaptation of all education to the individual needs of the children. There is an emphasis that all children must be developed along the lines of constructive citizenship. To obtain this, teaching procedure must be based

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on the appropriate techniques that will result in the activity to study.

The illustrative material used in the various chapters consists of descriptions of actual teaching in the classroom. The book abounds in specific suggestions for the intelligent betterment of teaching. By means of simple language, fine illustrations and judicious discriminations, the author has submitted to the practicing teacher a fine volume.

Dr. Nuttall has taken the essence from each of the many teaching techniques, realizing that each has a pertinence and validity of its own. The result is a mosaic of the best in present day teaching. The book deserves more than a cursory perusal, particularly by those who are still struggling with the problems of translating theory into practice.

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School
Mount Vernon, New York

A History of American Political Thought From the Civil War to the World War. By Edward R. Lewis. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1937. Pp. x, 561. \$5.00.

In his detailed study of the development of political thought in the United States in the period from 1865 to 1917 Mr. Lewis has assembled a mass of data that throws much light on the clash and interaction of political ideas of the present time, particularly as they are related to the system of the federal courts. To a considerable extent he has gleaned his material from an examination of the public utterances of at least one hundred and fifty different persons, all important in their day in one way or another. He discusses among other topics the adoption of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments and the bitter contest over the constitutionality of the Reconstruction Acts following the Civil War, the Legal Tender cases, the Income Tax case, and the nation-wide debate on the proposals of Theodore Roosevelt for the recall of judicial decisions. In all this he gives special attention to the relationship of the courts to the ever-increasing volume of social and economic legislation. And he devotes considerable space to a survey of the Greenback, Granger, Populist, and Progressive movements, attempting to make an appraisal of the contributions of such reformers as Peter Cooper, Henry George, Edward Bellamy, William Jennings Bryan, Theodore Roosevelt, and Woodrow Wilson.

Although the book contains a mass of important material on a large number of topics of significance, it is somewhat loosely organized in places. Moreover, the author's fondness for the use of the pronoun "I" in expressing his own opinion is somewhat inconsistent with the scholarly treatment of the subject. Nevertheless, Mr. Lewis has produced a genuinely

important book, which ought to have considerable value not only for the student of American political thought, but also for those with only a general interest in the history of the United States since the Civil War.

ASA E. MARTIN

Pennsylvania State College
State College, Pennsylvania

Steamboating on the Upper Mississippi; the Water Way to Iowa. Some River History. By William J. Petersen. Iowa City: State Historical Society of Iowa, 1937. Pp. 575. \$3.50.

The Mississippi valley has played a most important part in the history of the American continent. So interwoven with our lives is its story that we never tire of it—from the chroniclers of New Spain and French Louisiana to the present it has been told and retold. The river of De Soto and La Salle, the river "from the land of the Ojibway" to the great sea waters, had become, by the middle of the last century, the principal highway for the commerce of a growing nation.

The book under review treats especially the period from the voyage of the *New Orleans* in 1811 to the years of reconstruction following the Civil War. The history of early steamboating in the United States, together with some account of the venturesome men whose inventive brains and iron wills made it possible—such men as Robert Fulton, Nicholas J. Roosevelt, and Henry Miller Shreve—furnishes the material for several of the early chapters. Consideration is given next to the various kinds of trade involved. In large measure, this depended upon the circumstances of the times and the requirements of the country. Thus steamboats were used to transport army units to isolated forts in time of peace, and to the scene of action during the Civil War. Tourists and traders, missionaries and Indians, home-seeking immigrants, miners, surveyors, good men and bad, alike used the boats. Their freight also was most varied—goods sent to Indian agencies or to remote army posts, agricultural implements for new communities and whisky for all points; furs sent down stream by the American Fur Company, raw products in gradually but surely increasing quantities, and lead from the mines at Galena. The story of the latter trade—for a time it was the most lucrative of all—has suffered utter neglect. It is to his credit that Dr. Petersen devotes no less than five chapters (XXIV-XXVIII) to its consideration.

As picturesque as scenes from the pages of Mark Twain are some of the descriptions of the steamers and their captains. Supposedly it is contrary to the canons of scientific scholarship for a historian to have a hero. Even to approximate its potentialities his art must remain, like Mount Aconcagua, "frozen,

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alert, austere." The reviewer would refrain from saying that the author has transgressed the rules and found a hero for his story, but Daniel Smith Harris comes near to filling the bill. Other captains too become quite human at the touch of this excellent writer—they buy and sell boats, engage in rate wars, walk their decks and swear, take their turn at the helm; one ties up his boat to ease a woman in childbirth; another perils his life to save a child. No book within the reviewer's experience has drawn so fascinating a picture of steamboating on the upper reaches of the Mississippi river.

Very few comments need be made concerning this work. Its title is somewhat misleading. *The Water Way to Iowa* implies geographical limitations which have no existence in fact. The Mississippi river from St. Louis north to its source is the theatre of action—Illinois, Wisconsin, and Minnesota enjoy as much attention as Iowa. However, that is a minor point. Seven hundred and forty references—many of them to little-known newspapers and sources—give proof positive of the author's painstaking research. A good index concludes a volume of great intrinsic interest and of merit as an example of regional history studied in the light of thoughtful scholarship.

ALBAN W. HOOPES

American Philosophical Society
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

History of Civilization: Earlier Ages. By James Harvey Robinson, James Henry Breasted and Emma Peters Smith. New York: Ginn and Company, 1937. Pp. 896. \$2.20.

History of Civilization: Our Own Age. By Charles A. Beard, James Harvey Robinson and Donnal V. Smith. New York: Ginn and Company, 1937. Pp. 850. \$2.20.

These companion volumes are "up-to-date" revisions of the notable Robinson, Breasted and Beard's *History of Europe*. The first volume, *Earlier Ages*, gives a panoramic picture of man through the ancient and medieval world, which helps to explain modern man. This book is divided into eight units or "parts." As introductory to each, a brief statement of its content and importance is given. Of course, these parts are divided into chapters. As an introduction to each chapter there is given in brief form the key to the chapter. It is intended by the authors that these previews will show the student what is to come and its connection with what has preceded, thereby developing continuity of the narrative. Each paragraph is so organized as to lead to the climax of the chapter.

The second volume, *Our Own Age*, which is

divided into seven major units, has as its purpose the explanation of written history and the relation of modern Europe to the other parts of the world. In their preface the authors state that special attention was given to problems of teaching as well as to the demands of the most modern classroom practice.

Both volumes are outstanding in their selection, arrangement, and presentation of subject matter. The needs of the high school student and the problems of the teacher are served in the organization of the volumes. Each topic discussed is definitely connected to the main theme in showing how civilization has developed. Liberal use is made of the subject matter of the various social sciences in order to explain further the complex development of our civilization. The narrative is logically constructed and one of increasing interest.

This reviewer was especially impressed with the choice of vocabulary, the explicit style, and the absence of vague or unusual terms. At the close of each chapter are review questions, directive questions, topics for discussion, a list of useful terms, and selective readings for student help. Numerous maps, pictures, and illustrations are well chosen to illustrate topics discussed. Also at the close of each volume is a supplemental bibliography, primarily for the use of the teacher.

HERMAN H. LAWRENCE

Senior High School
Middletown, Ohio

Elementary Economics. By Thomas Nixon Carver and Maude Carmichael. Ginn and Company: Boston, 1937. Pp. 500. Illustrated. \$1.80.

This is a very excellent text, containing the good qualities of Professor Carver's former textbook on economics, with an improved form, and appropriate additional illustrations.

The authors seem to have combined, in a successful manner, enough of the two opposing ideas of individualism and collectivism to make the book valuable in helping the pupil to prepare to take his place in society.

At the beginning of each chapter the topical outline, list of terms to define, and points to keep in mind, are of great value to the student in helping him to understand and to grasp the meanings of the chapter. At the end of the chapters are found excellently-chosen exercises and problems, as well as topics for investigation and report. At the close of each part (there are seven main divisions of the book) one finds an excellent summary, or review, of the main ideas and principles expounded in the preceding chapters.

Of especial importance is Chapter XXXVIII, "The Battle of the Standards," which brings to the pupil the effect on people who are enjoying a high

or expensive standard of living who have to enter into unrestricted competition in production with people who live on a much lower or cheaper level. Many textbooks give but slight reference to this matter and some omit a discussion of it entirely.

In the last chapter is given a clear exposition of several of the radical and sometimes, destructive plans for sudden social reform, so that the pupil has a chance to compare them with the slower and safer constructive changes that may be going on around him.

The authors have prepared a very readable, easily understood, and interesting text for the pupil, and one that the teacher will find of material aid when he is organizing his work.

HENRY G. SWAYNE

Head, Social Studies Department
High Schools, Savannah, Georgia

BOOK NOTES

The purpose of Leslie Day Zeleny's *Practical Sociology* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937. Pp. xxi, 461. \$3.00) is to make clear to beginners the sociology dealing with the common affairs of everyday life. It is organized into two divisions, "Social Relations" and "The Community and its Culture."

By means of stories of everyday life and everyday social processes the beginner is introduced to sociology. Emphasis is placed upon the relation between group life and the development of personality. Teaching aids in the form of questions, activities, projects, and supplementary readings do much to achieve the aim of the author—making the book practical.

Argument and comment pro and con by distinguished men may be found in *The Supreme Court Issue and the Constitution*, edited by William R. Barnes and A. W. Littlefield (New York: Barnes and Noble, Inc., 1937. Pp. 149. \$1.00). Much of the material included in the volume was supplied in response to a letter requesting frank statements regarding the President's reorganization plan. The editors, however, believe that the many problems raised by the recent proposals for judiciary reform will not be settled permanently by Congress in the near future.

In E. E. Kellett's *The Story of Dictatorship* (New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1937. Pp. 231. \$1.75), a long line of tyrants from Old Testament days to the present is traced. The author finds much in common with dictators throughout the ages, and a striking similarity in their methods of obtaining

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power and retaining it. It is evident that certain conditions, usually during a war or following one, permit men of daring to seize extraordinary power and to establish themselves as despots. The book is well written and is particularly timely.

The first of a series of four volumes of a definitive history of Chicago has appeared recently: Bessie Louise Pierce, *A History of Chicago*. Volume I, *The Beginning of a City, 1673-1848*. (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1937. Pp. xvii, 455. Illustrations and maps. \$5.00). The volume begins with the coming of the first white men to the region that is now the great city, including priest, explorer, adventurer, trader, farmer and artisan. The date 1848 has been chosen as the close of the first period of Chicago's history because at "that time expanding facilities of transportation and communication transferred her from a frontier town, serving only a home market, to a metropolitan center in touch with a rapidly growing hinterland." The book is well written and measures up to the highest type of scholarship. The succeeding volumes will be awaited with interest.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Social or Anti-Social Wages. By I. W. Cox. New York: The American Press. 5 cents.

Talks delivered over the radio.

Reconstruction for Peace. By Maurice La Coste. New York: Amerique, 137 West 27th Street. 10 cents.

An answer to fascism. In both English and French editions.

Eleven Million. By Vida Ginsberg, Marjorie Graham and Elizabeth Weiss. New York: Lincoln School of Teachers College, 425 West 123rd Street. 10 cents.

A one-act play suitable for an Armistice Day assembly peace program, written by three pupils of Lincoln School.

Hudson River Sight-Seeing Map Booklet. By W. H. Radcliffe. Published by the author, 14 East 28th Street, New York. 25 cents.

Word pictures of the Hudson from New York to Albany and back.

Safety Instruction—A Teacher's Manual. Education Division, National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, 1 Park Avenue, New York. 15 cents.

Presents sixteen units of instruction, including illustrations, questions, problems, suggested activities, and bibliographies. Prepared by a committee of educators and traffic safety authorities for use in high schools that teach traffic safety.

The Federal Convention. By Margaret Porch Hamilton. Published by Mrs. F. M. Hamilton, 455 Park Avenue, Leonia, New Jersey. 50 cents. Lots two to twenty, 30 cents. Above twenty, 20 cents.

Although published several years ago, this dramatization of the Federal Convention is timely, in connection with the Sesquicentennial celebration.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The Early Stuarts, 1603-1660. By Godfrey Davies. New York: Oxford University Press, 1937. Pp. xxi, 452. Maps. \$5.00.

The fifth volume in the series known as "The Oxford History of England."

Single to Spain. By Keith Scott Watson. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1937. Pp. 264. Illustrated. \$2.00.

The Spanish civil war seen through the eyes of a young English journalist.

Germany the Last Four Years. By Germanicus. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1937. Pp. 116. \$1.75.

An account of German governmental expenditures that gives a picture of the economic situation under Nazi rule. It is written by a group of German economists, who for obvious reasons remain anonymous.

An Economic History of the Western World. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937. Pp. xvi, 790. Illustrated. \$2.50.

Intended primarily as a college text for courses in European economic history.

The Profits of War through the Ages. By Richard Lewinsohn. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1937. Pp. viii, 287. \$3.00.

An exposure of the various forms of profit, direct and indirect, accruing through war to financiers, manufacturers, and others.

Theory of the Democratic State. By Marie Collins Swabey. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1937. Pp. 229. \$2.50.

A volume that deals with republican logic and the principles which underlie the practical technique of democracy and its humanitarian ideals.

The Seventeen Million. By Ogden L. Mills. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. 143. \$1.75.

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Collectivism, A False Utopia. By William Henry Chamberlain. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. vi, 265. \$2.00.

A study of collectivism, both in its communist and fascist forms, based upon the demonstrable facts of the Soviet, German, and Italian experiments.

Pressure Politics in New York. By Belle Zeller. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937. Pp. xi, 310. \$3.00.

A picture of the interplay of state-wide pressure groups as they come into contact with the legislature of the Empire state.

Introductory Economic Geography. By L. E. Klimm, O. P. Starkey, and N. F. Hall. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937. Pp. viii, 492. Illustrated. \$4.00.

Designed to furnish the text basis for a college course and economic geography that may not require any collegiate prerequisites.

Men and Resources. By J. Russel Smith. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937. Pp. xiii, 729. Illustrated. \$2.20.

A study of North America and its place in world geography.

The Social Functions of Education. By Robert M. Bear. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. xiii, 434. \$2.25.

An introductory treatment of educational sociology, designed chiefly for college classes.

The Commercial Reciprocity Policy of the United States 1774-1829. By Vernon G. Setser. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1937. Pp. xi, 305. \$3.00.

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A new social studies series for the elementary school (grades three to six inclusive).

The Winnebago-Horicon Basin: A Type Study in Western History. By Joseph Schafer. Madison, Wis.: State Historical Society of Wisconsin, 1937. Pp. x, 349. Illustrated. \$2.50.

A volume in the series known as the "Wisconsin Domesday Book." The series connotes an approach to history through an intensive study of type areas.

The Effective General College Curriculum as Revealed by Examinations. By the Committee on Educational Research, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1937. Pp. xvi, 427. Illustrated. \$3.00.

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Man and Society. By Emerson P. Schmidt. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937. Pp. xv, 805. \$3.75.

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